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Employee morale

THE INDIAN JOURNAL

OF

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MORALE AT SUBORDINATE LEVELS

Paul H. Appleby

THE Chief Minister of an important state, while addressing a conference of the Collectors of that state, observed some time ago that key personnel in the government generally worked very hard, but that there had not been much success in getting subordinate personnel equally to extend themselves. Allowing for exceptions in individual cases and in some special locations, I think his observation applies broadly to the whole government of India and its states. Yet the general existence of good *morale* in all levels of an organization is a primary essential to good and effective performance. Not enough of high-level attention has been paid to this problem, and amelioration can come only by high-level attention.

In my observation, the following are factors contributing to present poor *morale* in lower ranks :

(1) The failure of people in upper ranks to demonstrate a real personal interest in subordinates individually and in the welfare, needs and possibilities of subordinate personnel generally. A very remote and cool relationship is the rule.

(2) Communication with subordinates is too largely a matter of giving orders, demanding particular things, criticising mistakes, with too little encouragement, praise, instruction and solicitation of the kind of help to be had only from people treated as equals.

(3) Promotion is too slow. When it comes, seniority counts too much.

(4) Pay is often too low to keep the better people, and too low to stimulate good performance.

(5) Interference in administration by political personages in the field is often not resisted at intermediate levels ; hence the

inclination of the field underlings is to follow the path of least resistance and comply with the demands of the politicians.

(6) There are no adequate systems of in-service training and development available to all types of employees.

(7) Administration of subordinate activities is too much in trivial rules and practices—keeping attendance records, assigning the handling of notes or cases on a numerical basis as if one case or one note were always equal to any other. Practices of this sort are undignified for all concerned, demand both superiors and inferiors, and put a premium on literal performances instead of on zeal, imagination and ingenuity.

(8) Many thousands of persons who have been employed for years feel needlessly discriminated against because they are in a “temporary” status still. While it is in general too difficult to discharge anyone working for the government, there is no gain in this respect for the government through keeping in temporary status persons who will in fact be as permanent as those who have formal, permanent status. At least three-fourths of the temporaries who have been employed for a year are in fact permanent. There is no sensible reason why 90 per cent of those who have been employed for two years should not be recognized as permanent.

(9) Where high ideological and programmatic zeal cannot be expected, an appeal to craftsmanship is moderately good substitute. India has many good craftsmen. But the papers circulating in the government—and often papers emanating from government and going to the public—are sloppy, mis-spelled and poorly written in archaic phraseology laboriously formal and lacking in warmth, colour or “lift” Craftsmanship in the government seems to be insufficiently appreciated and rewarded.

(10) One net result of these things is that subordinate personnel have no sense of mission, of being important parts of very great enterprises carried on for the betterment of the country. Often they are given no possible means of seeing any connection between what they do and the goals of revolutionary India. Nor has the treatment accorded to them provided any evidence that there is a revolution.

SOME REFLECTIONS ON THE T.V.A.

D. G. Karve

AS an autonomous corporation established by law to attend to all-sided development of a region the T.V.A. has assumed universal significance. Its purposes, history and organization have attracted wide interest. Some of the aspects of its growth and evolution are of topical importance. It is generally known that the corporation is an 'autonomous' one. This, however, implies that the corporation has a specific assignment, and it has a legal entity to enable it to carry it out. Its general accountability to the nation through Congress remains unimpaired. How specific national purposes are realized through creation of a separate lawful authority is interesting to notice. In the first place the composition of the directorate, though appointed by the President, and subject to confirmation by the Senate, has been by convention kept on a non-political level. The Directors are drawn from among eminent persons with long experience in several technical fields. As a rule education and science have been well represented in the directorate. Appointment to higher posts is made through a Services Selection Committee on the basis of appropriate qualifications. Many of the senior officers have reached their present positions in the service of the Authority itself. They have often chosen to work with the organization on a reasonable salary rather than seek competitive employment elsewhere. As for the others, both in regard to qualifications and terms of service the Authority maintains standards which are comparable to similar public employments. So far as junior and technical personnel are concerned their conditions of service are governed by industrial agreements operated through representative panels of employees. It is a novel, but significant, idea to obtain from all senior employees an oath of allegiance not only to the Constitution of the United States, but also to the organization and purposes of the T.V.A. Where personnel has to be appointed to give effect to new social concepts and ideals the unflinching devotion, and not merely professional loyalties of the staff, are essential for success.

It is only natural that any overall decisions of personnel policy, e.g. giving preference to ex-servicemen, are honoured by the T.V.A. personnel boards along with other public agencies. But in all respects

concerning the framing of conditions of service, recruitment and discipline the T.V.A. is fully autonomous. Every office has an employment division which maintains a standing list of applicants for all posts, the nature and requirements of which are described in circulars available to all. Supervisors in charge of offices or works are asked to describe in detail particulars of the type of persons whom they want for their jobs. With this information in its possession, the personnel section makes a preliminary selection of eligible candidates from among available applicants. This list of eligibles would then be sent to the Personnel Officer, who would make a more intensive scrutiny and send in a panel to the head of the office or works. The head would then make his final choice, after holding a personal interview if he considers it necessary. Usually half the travelling costs of the interviewed candidate are borne by the T.V.A. Appointments to superior posts are, as far as possible, made by promoting staff already employed in any of the branches of T.V.A. The decision is taken by the head of the employing office. Aggrieved parties may complain to him. Normally he is ready to give reasons for his decision to the complainants. If there is reduction in staff, not the junior most, but the least useful is discharged first. By long experience personnel policies in all respects are now standardized and are well understood by officers as well as other staff. Most things are reduced to detailed circulars.

It is not surprising to hear that the respective authorities of the Federal Government have often attempted to bring the T.V.A. operations under their normal procedure and control. This effort has, however, not been successful. The reasons for the creation of an autonomous public body like the T.V.A. are still fresh in the minds of legislators and the public. Exactly because the usual authorities in their usual way would not be able to accomplish a particular task an extraordinary public authority was set up. It was told what to do. But it was deliberately not fettered with too many specifics as to how to do it. This indeed is the peculiar strength of the T.V.A. On its side the T.V.A., as a public authority administered by persons who have not only high competence and experience, but who also possess a record of high responsibility, have kept fresh their awareness of basic principles of business as well as of public administration. They have tried to keep as close to approved procedures of these two as possible, and they have gone on improving and adapting them from time to time. By their record of success and fairness they have created a presumption in favour of their free judgment. Some of these procedures are suggestive,

The T.V.A. is many things rolled into one. It is also a manufacturing and construction company. It prides itself on its competitive performance in these spheres. It was reported that in a recent case the Atomic Energy Commission had a big job to be done. Some units of it were given out to the T.V.A. and some to private concerns. It is said that the performance of the T.V.A., in respect of cost, quality and speed, was better than that of its competitors. This only underlines the emphasis which the T.V.A. itself places on its being "on merits" a better show than its private alternatives.

As a public authority, as a construction company, and as a business unit the T.V.A. conducts huge and variegated activities. To give the Congress some idea as to the nature of these transactions, its accounts have to be cast in one "general" form. This, for comparative purposes, has to be kept up from year to year. But the really appropriate and serviceable accounts are maintained in special financial and cost account forms, which though not novel, are a deliberate adaptation. It is recognized that as the T.V.A. is a public authority its accounts should be available for scrutiny to the Controller General, who also reports to the Congress. But two features of this procedure are noteworthy. For the audit of Governmental concerns, since 1945, the Controller General has a separate section which is manned by experienced business auditors, whose scrutiny the T.V.A. would itself accept as a competent professional examination. Secondly, side by side with the Controller General's report the Congress and the public would receive the T.V.A.'s report as well, and both Congress and public are well trained to read such reports with understanding and caution. A business document is used in a business-like way, and as a rule no political capital is sought to be made out of what auditors call an "irregularity", for which the average politician's term is a "scandal". In evolving a suitable machinery and manner of scrutiny the Controller General does not give up "control"; he only makes it more flexible and more appropriate. How well the public, and especially the business public, took up the challenge of the new form of "business organization", namely, the autonomous corporation, is illustrated by the fact that the Controller General has always found it possible to attract eminent commercial auditors to his special section, not on account of higher earnings—because these are not provided—but on account of the challenge of the assignment. This constructive and co-operative attitude on the part of the legislature, administration, corporation and business would appear to be essential for the evolution of appropriate forms of administration pertaining to "public business."

A similar appreciation of the need for flexibility is shown in regard to budget procedure. The T.V.A.'s own budget, apart perhaps from expenditure on headquarter offices, can only be programmes of work, balancing a side of investment and expenditure, with that of achievement and production. In such a balancing it is the resultant, which is the decisive factor, not each couple or series of items. In fact in several of these constituent items there is occasionally an element of calculated imbalance spread over time and space. While, therefore, the Congress has each year to pass a bulk appropriation for the T.V.A., in doing so it takes into account the detailed programmes submitted by the T.V.A. and the President's own message giving an appraisal. Appropriations made for individual programmes do not lapse, and in several other spheres, *e.g.* reimbursements, considerable year-to-year flexibility is allowed. But this does not mean that the T.V.A. can escape with anything. Not only are trained eyes prying into their affairs within and outside the administration, but they also have to take to heart the moral of the saying : "You cannot fool all people for all time." From year to year the T.V.A. has to maintain its reputation for economy, efficiency, success and above all, a sense of responsibility towards the public. Reports are that this has been well achieved by the T.V.A., which fact is both an effect and a cause of the flexibility and understanding shown by the Congress and the administration.

In its relations with collaborating organizations within its area, the T.V.A. follows the same policy of helpful influence, rather than of a regulatory authority. In the special context of the resources of the area, location of plants is guided more by availability of water, than of power which may be had almost anywhere. The industrial as well as housing policy favoured by the T.V.A. is one of planned decentralization. To enable it to offer the best possible advice on both these scores, it maintains a staff of experts who collect and use all available data bearing on these respective responsibilities. With this in their possession, they approach industrial enterprises as well as local authorities. It is through the voluntary choice of these that final decisions are taken. Build up a body of adequate technical knowledge and guidance, and make these available to people concerned at the appropriate time—this with a little further backing of support or special concession produces the right decision. But the process is primarily educative and democratic. As a federal agency the T.V.A. is exempt from local taxation on its property. Even so, the T.V.A. makes payment of 5% of its local income as 'voluntary contribution' to the resources of the local authorities. In common

with the rest of American life, the T.V.A. is not much bound by rigid ideas of proper procedure and precedent. So long as the job is well done, and accepted canons of fairness and propriety appropriate to the functions are followed the corporation is not only permitted, but is actually expected, to devise its own institutional and procedural devices. Democracy and efficiency are both utilized as aids to growth and are on no account permitted to be used as excuses for stagnation.

“Official morale depends to no small extent upon the general standards of the community in which the particular service operates, for it is clear that even if we have a right to expect the official to set an example, it would be unrealistic to insist that the gap between the two spheres should be a wide one...Constant vigilance on the part of the public is the only safeguard against the growth of bureaucracy. On the other hand a tendency to make the Service a scapegoat for everything that goes amiss and to hold up the official as an inferior sort of human being will gradually undermine the highest morale, rendering the average official despondent and apathetic in the performance of his daily tasks.”

—E. N. GLADDEN
(in ‘Civil Service or Bureaucracy?’)

RECENT EXPERIMENTS IN LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT IN INDIA

M. P. Sharma

LOCAL Self-government in India, as developed during the British rule, had certain well-marked characteristics of its own. In the first place, it had a uniformity of structure and functions. Such variations as existed between the local bodies of the same class in the different provinces were neither many nor very important. Everywhere the local bodies consisted partly of nominated members and partly of members directly elected on a restricted franchise. The chairmen who were the executive heads were indirectly elected by the members and could usually be removed by them by a no-confidence motion. The functions were of the conditional kind, concerned mainly with health and sanitation, primary education, local works, and a few trading services in case of the urban bodies. Secondly, the local self-government system of India was, on the whole, non-hierarchical. Instead of the higher local bodies supervising and controlling the lower ones, the latter had direct relations with the government and its supervising officers. Thirdly, there was almost a complete separation of rural local areas and authorities from the urban, so that the latter were independent of the former, constitutionally, functionally as well as financially. This arrangement was not very favourable to the prosperity of the rural local bodies which found themselves deprived of the power of taxing the inhabitants of towns and cities which are centres of wealth and population and contribute, in most of the foreign countries, a good deal to the revenues of the rural local bodies; but it did away with the difficult problem of the struggle of the urban communities to get free from the jurisdiction of the rural local bodies of the surrounding area—a problem which exhibits itself in England in the shape of attempts of the boroughs to obtain the status of the county boroughs, in the U.S.A. in the so-called city-county consolidation movement, and in Germany in the attempts of the towns to get circle-free.

II

The uniformity of the pattern of local government in India in the past was largely due to the unitary form of government which the country had until 1937. Beginning with 1870, a series of the resolutions

of the Government of India laid down, from time to time, the form and the pace of advance in local self-government. With the advent of provincial autonomy in 1937, it was natural that the various provincial governments should wish to develop local self-government institutions in their respective areas along their own lines and the process began almost immediately. During the year 1937-38 many of the provincial governments appointed Local Self-government Enquiry Committees to recommend measures of reform. An interruption came on account of the outbreak of the world war II and the consequent constitutional deadlock, but when the country obtained independence in 1947 and adopted a federal form of government, the way for reform and change opened up once again and the broken threads of reorganization of local government were resumed. During the last ten years local government structure in most of the states has been remodelled to varying extents. As a result of these developments, local government in the various states of India is no longer quite uniform. Some states have experimented along new lines and established local government systems different in their fundamentals from those of the other states.

Some of the changes which occurred were dictated by the new constitutional set-up of the country such were, for example, the adoption of universal suffrage, the abolition of the communal electorates, discontinuance of nominations, and the large-scale establishment of village panchayats. Naturally, these changes have occurred in all the states, though the pace of progress in respect of all the items (e.g. abolition of nominations or establishment of panchayats) has not been uniform. Other changes, in the nature of new experiments, were confined only to a few states. We may mention, by way of example, the direct election of presidents by popular vote in Madhya Pradesh and U.P. Two of the boldest and in some ways the most strikingly novel experiments have, however, been made in the sphere of rural local self-government in Madhya Pradesh and Orissa. These deserve special notice as illustrating the newer trends in the Indian local self-government.

The Madhya Pradesh Scheme, initiated by the M.P. Local Government Act 1948, is popularly known as the Janapada Scheme. Under it, the whole of the state (pre-reorganization) is divided into local areas called Janapadas. In practice, the Janapada boundaries coincide with those of the tahsils, and there were 96 Janapadas in Madhya Pradesh as it stood before reorganization. The characteristic features of the scheme may briefly be noticed here.

In the first place, the Janapada, like the English county, is a mixed area, urban and rural. All the municipalities and notified areas situated within a tahsil are integral parts of the Janapada of that tahsil. These lesser areas, within the Janapadas, function autonomously in respect of the powers conferred on them by their several constituting Acts, but, otherwise, they are parts of the Janapada constitutionally, financially, and administratively as are the English boroughs of the county. The relationship between them and the Janapada might be brought out under five points, namely, (i) the lesser areas are represented on the Janapada sabha (council) by members elected by the municipal and notified area committees of the tahsil, not exceeding 1/6th of the total membership of the sabha; (ii) municipalities and notified area committees within a Janapada may be called upon by the Government to make specified contributions to the Janapada fund; (iii) the sabha has general power of inspection, supervision, and control over the municipal and town area committees and a right of complaint to the Government in case of default in respect of water-supply, health, epidemic prevention, medical relief, and maintenance of roads; (iv) in respect of duties transferred to the sabha by the Government under Section 52 of the Act the sabha exercises sole authority over the whole Janapada including the municipal and notified areas, but excluding the city corporations of which, until the reorganization of the states, there were two—Jabalpur and Nagpur; and (v) the village panchayat areas are integral parts of the Janapada area, and the Janapada sabha can reverse or alter the resolutions of the panchayats by a two-third majority vote.

A second important feature of the Janapada scheme is that, except in matters reserved for the sabha or the standing committees by the Act or rules, the executive authority of the Janapada is vested in a Chief Executive Officer who is Government officer, generally of the rank of an Extra Assistant Commissioner. Some of the Janapadas, called minor, however, do not have a chief executive officer resident at their headquarters but are placed under the chief executive officer of a neighbouring major Janapada. In their case, the day-to-day work is looked after by a deputy chief executive officer who is the Tahsildar of the area, while more important matters are referred to the chief executive officer of the major Janapada, for decision. The chief executive officer is paid by the government and besides his duties in connection with Janapada work, does also revenue and magisterial work. In matters of appointment, posting, leave, transfer, discipline, etc. he is under the control, not of the Janapada, but of the Government. Like the French Prefect, the chief executive officer represents the official and independent type of local executive. He has a long list

of statutory powers including the power of appointment of the staff with a salary not exceeding Rs. 50 per month. By the amending Act of 1953, however, the appointing power was taken which was also empowered to demand his removal (*i.e.* transfer) from the place by a 2/3rd majority. The underlying idea of this type of executive was to provide for the Janapada administration an experienced administrator of sufficient calibre and also to facilitate the unification of the district and local administration which is one of the central objects of the scheme.

Thirdly, the Janapada scheme contemplated the transfer of practically all the functions of the state administration, except police and justice, to the Janapada authorities. In respect of the functions thus transferred, the Janapada authorities would act as the agents of the state government and obey such directions and orders as might be issued by the latter. The state government would also transfer the personnel engaged in such functions and make the necessary financial provision. This is probably the most revolutionary feature of the Janapada scheme and, if implemented, would result in the association of the elected representatives of the people with practically the whole of the district administration. The idea of associating a popular council with district administration so as to mitigate its bureaucratic character dates back to the days of Shri G.K. Gokhale who first mooted it out. To begin with, the Janapada authorities would act in respect of the transferred functions, as agents of the state government, but in fullness of time when they gained sufficient experience, these functions would perhaps vest in them in their own right. It will not be an exaggeration to say that Section 52 which contemplated the entrustment of the most of functions of state government to the Janapadas was the *heart* of the Janapada scheme. Without it, the abandonment of the larger area of the district as the unit of rural local self-government and the substitution for it of a smaller area with scantier financial resources would not be justified at all.

Lastly, the Janapada scheme is intended to be a measure of large-scale decentralization, financial as well as territorial. The functional aspect of it has already been explained. Territorially or geographically, the scheme has brought the centre of rural self-government administration nearer to the people, from the district to the tahsil headquarters. Incidentally, it also aims at putting an end to the double establishments in education, public health, public works etc., hitherto maintained—one by the state government, and the other by local bodies—and thus effect economy.

III

Another experiment in local self-government on more or less similar lines has been attempted in Orissa through the Anchal Sasan Bill of 1953. Under the Anchal Sasan scheme, the entire state is to be divided into 118 Anchals each of which will generally include the areas of 10 contiguous village panchayats and coincide with a National Extension Block. Municipalities and notified areas will form integral parts of the Anchal within which they are situated, but the five larger municipalities of Cuttack, Puri, Berhampur, Balasore and Sambalpur are excluded and given an independent status. The Anchal Sabha will be indirectly elected by the members of the village panchayats, municipalities and notified areas each of which will be a separate constituency for the purpose. The chairman and vice-chairman of the Sabha are to be elected by the members from among themselves. There are to be standing committees for education, public health, agriculture and development, and also an executive committee with jurisdiction over finance, budget, and some other important matters. The decisions of the sabha and the committees are to be carried out by an Anchal Executive Officer drawn from the administrative services of the state government. He will have as his assistants in Anchal administration, an engineer, a health officer, an agricultural officer, and an education officer. The advice and assistance of the officers of the various technical departments of the state government at the district level will also be available for the Anchal authorities. The functions of the Anchal Sabha will include education (primary and middle but not high school), medical relief, public health, veterinary service, agriculture, village forests, irrigation, roads, and collection of land revenue and the cesses unless the village panchayats are able to take up this collection for a commission of 10 per cent. The Anchal and the panchayats will also be given control over the communal lands, leasing out of waste lands, and prevention of encroachments. The entire land revenue and the cesses will, in due course, be transferred to the Anchal Sasan to meet the case of the services under it.

The similarities between the Anchal Sasan and Janapada scheme are too obvious to need comment. The points of difference, however, deserve to be noted. In the first place, elections to the Anchal Sabha are to be indirectly the members of the lesser local bodies include in it, and not direct as in Janapada sabhas. Secondly, the area of the Anchal is smaller than the tahsil which is the basis of Janapada organisation. Thirdly, an attempt has been made to integrate the anchal area with the new developmental areas which have now emerged, while the Janapada area is unrelated to the newer areas.

of developmental administration. Fourthly, the functions of the Anchal sabha, while going beyond the traditional local government functions, do not contemplate wholesale transfer to these bodies, of the subjects of state administration as the Janapada scheme does. Lastly, the financial provision for the Anchal Sasan is more definite and clear-cut than for the Janapada scheme.

IV

The idea of making intermediate level rural local bodies indirectly elected is spreading and gaining adherants in more than one state. It is a feature, as we have noted, of the Orissa Anchal Sasan scheme, but its feasibility as a basis for the constitution of bigger rural local bodies such as the district boards has been under examination in West Bengal, Bihar and U.P. also. In all the three states, elections to the district boards have not taken place for the last 10 to 12 years. Direct election of these bodies on the basis of adult suffrage would be a tremendous thing—a repetition, more or less, of the national and state elections. The state governments appear to shrink from the huge effort and cost involved. More than that, there is the problem of the electoral funds for the candidates and the political parties. Can these funds be raised without compromising the requirements of “purity”? Indirect elections reduce the size of the electorate, and hence of the funds and efforts needed. Mahatma Gandhi favoured indirect elections, perhaps among others, for these reasons. The Prime Minister also has in some of his recent utterances, seemed to favour the idea. The tendency to substitute a smaller area for the district as the unit of rural local government is also strong, at least in some of the states.

V

An evaluation of these experiments and tendencies in the Indian local self-government has largely to be of a theoretical nature at present because sufficient experience of their actual working is not yet available. The direct election of municipal presidents, in the U.P. municipalities has not produced encouraging results. In some of the cities, the president has belonged to one political party or group and the majority of members to another so that their relations have been strained and full of friction. There is already a proposal in that state to go back to indirect election of the presidents as before. The Janapada scheme of Madhya Pradesh has never been fully implemented. The devolution of the functions of the state administration which we

have called 'the heart' of the scheme has not come about, nor the anticipated transfer of additional personnel and financial resources. The net result of the change has, therefore, been that in place of 22 and odd District Councils which the state had before, now there are 96 Janapada sabhas. A large number of smaller local areas and authorities inevitably results in the increase of the overhead costs. Since additional resources to meet this cost have not been forthcoming, the Janapada sabhas lack well-qualified technical and other personnel. They have neither engineers, nor health officers, nor secretaries of their own. The E.A.Cs or chief executive officers too have been doubtful acquisitions. They have to divide their time and attention between their revenue and magisterial duties on the one hand, and local government work on the other. Many of them have shown a preference for the former to the comparative neglect of the latter. This is because of the greater prestige attaching to the revenue and magisterial work and also because the whole previous training and experience of these officers has been in that line. Cases of friction between the C.E.O. and the Janapada sabha too have not been lacking. As things stand at present, there is little prospect of the Janapada scheme being implemented in its original form. In the reorganized Madhya Pradesh, it is now found only in 14 districts of the Mahakoshal and Chhatisgarh tracts. Madhya Bharat, Bhopal and Vindhya Pradesh areas have their different systems of rural local areas and authorities. Integration of the local government over the entire state is bound to take place, and it is difficult to say which of the several existing systems will survive. It will not be surprising if an account of the difficulties noted above, the Janapada scheme may have to be abandoned or modified.

The Anchal Sasan scheme of Orissa has yet to be tried. It is more moderately conceived than the Janapada scheme and may fare better if the contemplated transfer of land revenue and cesses to the Anchals takes place and the chief executive officers have their whole-time work with the Anchal. Indirect elections may reduce election expenditure by restricting the size of electorate, but a small electorate tempts the wealthier candidates to make a bid for the purchase of votes. Thus what is gained in terms of "purity" on one side, may be more than lost on the other.

The areas of rural local government, all over the world have shown, in recent years, a tendency towards constant widening. Financial and technical considerations have been responsible for this. Experience has shown that financially and technically only large-sized rural units of local government can prove adequate to

support the burden of the modern local services such as education, health, communications, water-supply, etc. If we seek to reverse the hands of the clock in India, as has been attempted in some of the states, there must be special reasons and circumstances to justify it. If the functions of the local bodies are extended beyond the traditional limits as in the Janapada scheme, smaller areas might be, functionally and financially, feasible; but the question would still remain whether the transferred functions—collection of revenue, agriculture, co-operation, irrigation, developmental work etc. would be better looked after by the local authorities than by the regional or local agencies of the state government. So far there is little in our experience to show that they would. Collection of land revenue was entrusted to some of the village panchayats in Uttar Pradesh, but the experiment had to be abandoned as unsatisfactory and the state government had to revert to its own agency for the purpose.

All this is not saying that new experiments in our system of local self-government should not be made or that the system which has come down from the past is perfect, but the little experience that is available of the working of the experiments hitherto made certainly points to the need of a more cautious approach to the problem of local government reform. Any scheme of experiment or reform must be preceded by a thorough and objective investigation and discussion of the issues involved. The experience of other countries, and of the working of our own institutions hitherto, must be considered. The limitations of the human and financial resources available must be taken into account. Thus alone, workable plans of reform can be formulated.



RE-ORGANISING THE INDIAN INCOME-TAX DEPARTMENT (II)

Indarjit Singh

IN the previous article on the subject which appeared in this *Journal* for the quarter July-September 1955 (Vol. I, No. III), the objectives and proposed methods of investigation of the O & M enquiry into the Indian Income-tax Department were briefly described. The enquiry was completed in July 1956 and a comprehensive report was prepared. The report contains a number of recommendations relating to methods and procedures of work, fixation of time standards, the reorganisation of the primary work-units, and the development of suitable mechanism of control and supervision, training of staff and improvement of public relations. As the report is still under the consideration of the Government, it is not possible to give the details of the recommendations here. Attention may, however, be drawn to some of the salient features of the enquiry, which may be of general interest to all students of management studies.

In regard to both the field and methods of investigation, the enquiry covered a wide range. Almost all the important aspects of the work of the Indian Income-tax Department, such as registration records, arrears of income-tax demands, evasion of tax, forms, filing and recording system, statistics, staff training and public relations etc., were thoroughly examined in full detail. The method of investigation included seminars, case studies, methods and procedure analysis, work simplifications, timing of jobs, devising of control mechanism and improvement of structural arrangements.

Staff Participation

Foremost among the objectives was to secure the participation of the staff actively in the work of reorganisation. Seminars were, therefore, established in each 'charge' of the Commissioner of Income-tax, covering all levels of gazetted and non-gazetted staff, to elicit their views on nearly twenty topical subjects bearing upon departmental working. The seminar method of consultation and discussion not only enabled experience within the Department to be pooled but also made the officers think of the problems facing them both in the matter of internal efficiency and public relations. The high level of reporting

by the seminars is an evidence of untapped sources of improvement that are available within the Department.

Case Studies

Simultaneously, a large number of case studies were conducted by the reorganisation staff in order to locate the factors and conditions that called for improvement. As stated in the earlier article, the officer in charge of each unit under investigation was co-opted as a part of the reorganisation staff temporarily so that (a) there was a maximum of agreement on questions of fact, and (b) the material collected had firm relation to operational needs.

Analysis of Existing Procedures of Work

In the meantime, the reorganisation staff charted out the existing procedures, analysed them and discussed them with the field staff in the light of opinions that were received from the seminars. After standardising the old procedures, having regard to the over-riding necessity of conforming to the law, a process of work simplification was carried out. The old procedures were subjected to all the necessary routine of work simplification, namely questioning the need of each of the steps taken to perform a procedure, the importance of the sequence of steps, and combination of steps or their elimination with a view to simplification. The process involved some basic re-thinking about the organisational structure of the Department, the methods of work followed at various levels, public relations, the mechanism of control and supervision and the utilisation of experienced staff in relation to the importance of work.

As a result of the above studies, it was found necessary to obtain further information before deciding upon the final form and manner of re-organisation. A proforma was accordingly specially designed to secure information in sufficiently analytical form to enable a clear picture of the existing pattern and quantum of work to be obtained. The existing statistical material also required further analysis. There was, for example, a considerable difference between the number of assessment forms (I.T. 30) issued and the number of assessments reported to have been completed by Income-tax Officers.

The Nature of Income-tax Work

The reconciliation of two sets of figures supplied by Income-tax Officers to two different sources within the Department offered some

interesting results. For example, it enabled an appreciation of that work of the Department which did not lead to the fixation of liability and hence the collection of income-tax revenue. Such work was included under a blanket nomenclature known currently as 'N.A.' (Non-Assessable). It became clear from the very beginning that it formed a fair proportion of the total work in the Department. Some work of that nature is inevitable in the Income-tax Department since, owing to fluctuations in business conditions, the liability of assesseees to income-tax varies from year to year; surveys conducted by the Department also give rise to some infructuous assessment work. Nevertheless, the sum-total of such work was of an order which required careful investigation for determining the manner and the extent to which Income-tax officials were being employed on this work.

It was further observed that the existing unit of work measurement, namely an "assessment", was by itself ineffective for a correct appreciation of the out-turn of work. It covered a range of work which extended from practically negligible effort to long drawn out proceedings in complicated assessments. "Assessments", irrespective of their nature, were, therefore, rejected from the outset, as a proper measure of work-load or out-turn. Another defect in the existing procedure was that the work-content was related to the amount of income actually assessed in that year. For example, if a loss was computed in assessment in one year, the effort spent on that case was regarded as negligible. On the other hand, if the same case resulted in an income of Rs. 25,000 or above in the next year, and even it did not involve much effort to compute that income, *e.g.* share of income received from a firm, the Income-tax Officer got credit for completing a complicated case. It was possible in the circumstances for the officers to exercise selectivity in such a way that maximum out-turn could be shown as having been achieved with varying amounts of effective disposal of work. This fact was freely admitted at the seminars which recommended that a more realistic approach should be made to the question of out-turn of an Income-tax Officer. It was further borne out by case studies and the overall statistical position.

The work of the Income-tax Department can thus be broadly classified into 'non-assessment' and 'assessment' work. The 'non-assessment' work is largely of a procedural character. As most of these procedural questions are rooted in the law itself, they have a certain importance in the Income-tax Department which does not normally attach to similar procedures in other departments. Notwithstanding this distinction, the routine character of the work makes it fairly easy to compute its content and to determine the standards of work that should be followed for its disposal.

The method adopted was simple. The constituent operations of a job were broken down into groups of tasks and sub-tasks to be done by various government employees and tabulated in the form of work distribution chart, a specimen of which appears at pages 118-119. The vertical columns of this chart showed the duties of each performer in respect of a specific job. The next step was to determine the number of times the operations were repeated and the time spent in performing each. The former information was available in most of the cases, but in some it had to be computed by sample case studies.

Assessment of Work-Contents

“Timing” of the various tasks and operations, however, was not attempted in the orthodox sense. In the first place, there are essential difficulties in timing such operations when Income-tax offices are still housed in rented buildings where lay-out cannot be ordered according to the needs of the work but depends on the type and size of the accommodation available. Unless lay-out can be standardised, there is no point in ‘timing’ the various operations though they fully lend themselves to such scientific assessment. The normal method that was followed was what may conveniently be described as “time-synthesis.” It consisted of extensive staff consultations to determine the ‘timing’ that would be acceptable on the basis of the past experience within the Department. The reorganisation staff simultaneously conducted a large number of case studies to establish the validity of conclusions arrived at in these discussions. Sometimes the process was reversed, namely the case studies were conducted prior to discussions with the staff and the conclusions reached modified suitably. The number of officials consulted ran literally into hundreds, and one of the happy features was that there was hardly a case of disagreement in this matter.

The above method enabled man-hours of non-assessment work to be computed fairly accurately, as the ‘timings’ fixed took full account of various occupational factors which called for adjustments. One of the important results was that the time which an Income-tax Officer was obliged to spend in carrying out the routine of assessment was computed, thus enabling a clear appreciation of the time he could devote to the more important part of his duties, namely, assessment of income-tax.

It is obvious that the measurement of assessment work presents considerable difficulties. The circumstances of a taxable person are likely to vary every year involving differing work-loads in computing his income. No Income-tax Officer can be hamstrung to a

pre-determined period of time for completing his investigation if he finds that the circumstances demand it. The reactions of assesseees are also unpredictable where complications arise and they have enough statutory rights to delay proceedings. On the other hand, the Income-tax Officer himself, if he were so disposed, can lengthen proceedings by concentrating on inessentials of investigations or shorten them by ignoring essentials.

The regulation of assessment work of an Income-tax Officer in a proper manner is thus the crux of the administrative problems in the Income-tax Department. There are several aspects of this problem. The records of the Department should be so designed that there is an automatic classification of work according to a reasonable estimate of gradations of effort on the basis of past information. Adequate arrangements should also exist for collecting, collating, classifying and consolidating information for cross checking returns of income and for discovering assesseees that escape liability to income-tax altogether. The flow of work should be evenly regulated which is not the case at present. The Work Flow Chart appearing at pages 120-121 indicates at a glance the flow of work in the department and the factors which impede regular flow. The control by superior officers of the Department should cover all material particulars which are relevant to efficient work and good public relations. It should also be possible to reduce the predictable part of the assessment work—a good portion of it is predictable to a degree—to a system. Lastly, the structure of the Department should be adequate in form and design to sustain the above requisites of administration.

Registration and Records

Most of the difficulties of the Department were traced ultimately to record-making and record-keeping. There was concentration on chronological recording of facts. This was, no doubt, necessary for tracing papers, but the facts as they arose were not classified in sufficient detail to present a complete picture of the pattern of work at any time. The consequence was that the Income-tax Officer had to wade through the entire record for any information that he had to obtain personally for planning his work or which the policy-makers had asked him to supply.

The system of recording was, therefore, completely overhauled and two basic forms were introduced. One was entitled "Planning & Progress Register" which classified information on assessments according to actions that were proposed to be taken under the law, and which in addition contained all such information that was of

PROCEEDINGS UNDER SECTION 34

| BROUGHT FOR- WARD ON | Assessment Year | | Date of service/ Date time-bar | Date of Completion of assessment/ D.C.R. No. | Income- originally assessed/finally assessed |
|----------------------------|-----------------|-------------|--------------------------------------|---|---|
| | 34 (1) (a) | 34 (24) (b) | | | |
| 1-4-1956→ | | | | | |
| Initiated during | | | | | |
| 1956-57 | | | | | |
| 1957-58 | | | | | |
| 1958-59 | | | | | |
| 1959-60 | | | | | |

**FRESH ASSESSMENT AS A RESULT OF SECTION 27/APPEAL/
REVISION ORDER**

| BROUGHT FOR- WARD ON | Assessment Year | Authority/Date of Order | Date of completion of fresh assessment | Income originally assessed/finally assessed |
|----------------------------|--------------------|----------------------------|--|---|
| 1-4-1956→ | | | | |
| Initiated during | | | | |
| 1956-57 | | | | |
| 1957-58 | | | | |
| 1958-59 | | | | |
| 1959-60 | | | | |

PENALTY PROCEEDINGS

| Year during which initiated | 28 (1) (a) and/or (b) | | 28 (1) (c) | | 18 A (9) | |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------|------------------|--------------------|------------------|--------------------|------------------|
| | Date of Issue/Year | Date of disposal | Date of issue/Year | Date of disposal | Date of issue/Year | Date of disposal |
| 1956-57 | | | | | | |
| 1957-58 | | | | | | |
| 1958-59 | | | | | | |
| 1959-60 | | | | | | |

CHECK SHEET

| Dated initials of | 1956-57 | | | | 1957-1958 | | | | 1958 59 | | | | 1959-60 | | | |
|----------------------|---------|------|-----|-----|-----------|------|-----|-----|---------|------|-----|-----|---------|------|-----|-----|
| | A-J | Ju-S | O-D | J-M | A-J | Ju-S | O-D | J-M | A-J | Ju-S | O-D | J-M | A-J | Ju-S | O-D | J-M |
| SUPER- VISOR | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| I. T. O. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| I. A. C/ C. I. T. | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

utility to the Income-tax Officer in making individual assessments. The other new record proposed for introduction was the General Index Card, a copy of which is reproduced opposite. It was to replace the existing Index Register. The important feature of this record was that it was practically a history sheet of the entire file for a period of four years and it enabled a quick appreciation to be made of the work-content of individual cases and of the types of problems that were likely to be faced in actual assessment. Both of them were designed to make the planning and programming of work effective and capable of being scrutinised and controlled at any time during the year. Over and above that, the two records also served as means of cross-checking the validity of information contained in them. They are more in the nature of self-balancing records as it was suggested that they should be compiled from two different sources by two different agencies within the office of the Income-tax Officer. A comparative study showed that no additional work was thrown on the staff because of the designing of new records. It was really a process of ordering into a balanced design the items of work which were already being done by the various members of the staff including the Income-tax Officer.

It may be safely concluded that generally difficulties in regulating and controlling work arise in organisations principally from an inadequate attention to analytical registration of work. If a rough work analysis precedes the record-making in the Department, there is scope for not only simplification of work but also for its control and evaluation.

Arrears of Work

The next set of problems related to arrears of work in the Department. A large number of case studies were conducted to arrive at the common pattern of arrears with a view to further designing administrative arrangements for their early clearance. The proforma, to which a reference has been made already, disclosed that a fair proportion of assessee had over three assessments pending disposal in the Income-tax Department. A scheme was prepared, involving structural re-arrangements and new methods of work, to dispose of arrears within a stipulated short period of time.

Similarly, a scheme was prepared for the disposal of arrears of appeals also. A work-study disclosed that the proportion of simple appeals to complicated appeals was very large and that, given certain changes in methods of work, the rate of disposal could be accelerated without affecting the rights of assessee. The method

| Activity. | Income Tax Officer | Inspector. | Supervisory duties. |
|----------------------------|---|--|---|
| | | | Supervisor Head Clerk |
| Issue of intimation slips. | 1. Directs issue of slips about specific items. | 1. Signs entry in Order Sheet regarding receipt of foot note after compliance. | 1. Receives foot note and passes it on to the U. D. C. |
| | 2. Signs the foot notes on both the copies. | | 2. Sample checks compliance of foot notes with intimation slips prepared. |
| | 3. Examines the Steno's Despatch Register every Saturday. | | 3. Submits weekly progress report regarding issue of Intimation Slips to I. T. C. |
| | 4. Conducts surprise inspection of Supervisor's Intimation Slip Issue Register. | | |
| | 5. Examines the weekly progress report of Supervisor. | | |

DISTRIBUTION CHART

| Upper Division Clerk | Steno-typist | Typist | Receipt Clerk. | Despatcher | Process Server |
|---|--|--------|---|------------|----------------|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Receives copy of foot-note from the Supervisor and enters it in his Register. 2. Prepares Intimation Slips. 3. Notes Intimation Slip number against each item with dated initials and submits the note/lists to the Supervisor. 4. Sorts and arranges the Intimation Slips according to Commissioner's Charges and enters them in the Slips Issue Register. 5. Prepares memo (Standard Form) having perforated acknowledgment slip. 6. Despatch of above. 7. Receives acknowledgement slips from Receipt Clerk through Supervisor and enters the date of receipt in the Intimation Slip Issue Register. 8. Places acknowledgement slips in a separate file kept by the Supervisor. 9. Returns foot note to I. T. O. after entry in Receipt/ Despatch Register. | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Types directions regarding issue of Intimation Slips as foot note in the assessment order. 2. Enters it in his Despatch Register and passes on the copy to the Supervisor. In case the notes pertain to several persons shown in a separate list, types the name and attaches it with the notes. 3. Passes the foot note on to U.D.C. after entry in his Register. 4. Submits his Despatch Register every Saturday to I. T. O. | | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Receives acknowledgment slip from S. I. B. and enters in Receipt Register. | | |

FLOW

ASSESSMENT WORK

PREASSESSMENT STAGES

ASSESSMENT STAGES

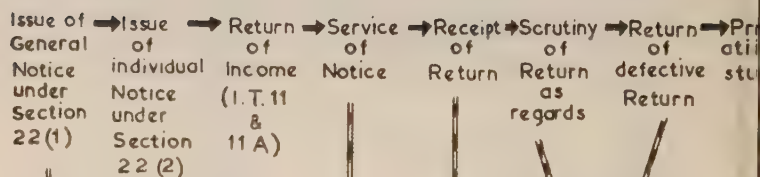


MUST BE OVER
by 15th May

MUST BE OVER
by 30th Sep.

SHOULD BE
FEATURED

FLOW



FACTORS THAT HINDER EVEN FLOW

Belated issue of Notice: never before end of April

(a) Delay in printing of forms I.T. 11 & 11-A
(b) Wasteful issue in non-effective cases

Delayed service due to physical incapacity of process server to serve more than a minimum per day

Incompleteness

Slackness

Absence of basic routine material

CHART

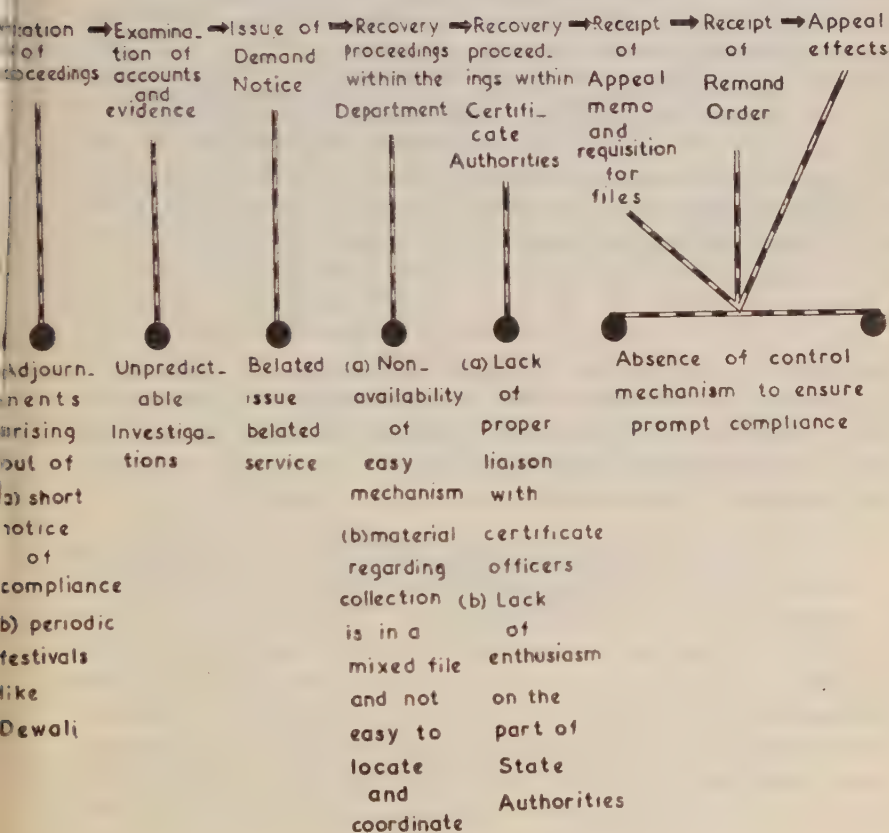
INCOME TAX OFFICE

POST ASSESSMENT STAGES



COMPLETED BY 28th Feb.
 CASES BY 31st Dec.
 OTHERS BY 28th Feb.

SHOULD BE PURSUED FROM OCT. TO
 JAN. WITH OTHER WORK AND
 EXCLUSIVELY IN FEB. & MAR.



employed was what may be called the study of "Delay Factors", *i.e.* an analysis of causes which, if rectified, would lead to larger out-turn than achieved at present. In itself the appellate procedure in the Department is a simple affair; but since it is the first opportunity for the Department to review its work, it has considerable public relations aspect and an accumulation of work at this stage should ordinarily be avoided.

Structure of the Primary Work Unit

The various 'work studies' made and the requirement of streamlining of a methods and procedures of work, in turn, underlined the importance of a complete reappraisal of the structure of the Department. The primary unit of work in the Income-tax Department is obviously the one in which assessment is finalised in accordance with the provisions of the law. Assessment involves both an investigation into the facts and application of the law. The size of the primary unit thus depends upon its physical capacity to undertake investigations and to make final computation of income-tax. This, in turn, depends on the nature of work to be dealt with. Another factor that fundamentally affects the formation of such primary units is the manner in which the statute defines the jurisdictions of Income-tax Officers. The third important consideration is the convenience of administration and the convenience of the tax-payer. Every effort should be made to reduce the cost of compliance by tax payers. Thus, various factors had to be considered carefully in the light of a large number of legal decisions some of which were of topical interest during the time the enquiry was being conducted. As a result of this analysis, a number of suggestions were made for reorganising the primary units and for linking them up together for purposes of control and supervision. It is inevitable in a statute such as that governing Income-tax that some of the suggestions would involve an amendment of the law, while others could be carried out within its existing framework.

One of the basic considerations which was constantly kept in view was how best to match the available experienced man-power to the complexities of work in the Department. This had been attempted before only in a sporadic manner and not in pursuance of a definite design. It was found that the pattern of work was such that there were possibilities of utilising the existing experienced man-power to better effect, provided the structural arrangements and methods of work could be re-designed as suggested. Attention was also devoted to the formulation of an elaborate scheme of in-service

training, the desirability of organising refresher courses and the establishment of a residential school for institutionalising the training.

Control and Supervision

The designing of effective mechanism of control and supervision was one of the main objectives of the enquiry. Here, in the first instance, it was suggested that certain definite and basic duties should be devolved upon the first line of supervision, namely the Head Clerk and the Supervisor. The Income-tax Officer's time for assessment work was calculated after computing his duties in relation to what may broadly be called supervisory work. Suggestions were also made for a revision of the duties of Commissioners of Income-tax and Assistant Commissioners of Income-tax, having regard to the fact that they should exercise control on strategic points of procedure in order that their compliance be effective. The procedures for the maintenance of the two basic control records described earlier, namely the Planning and Progress Register and the General Index Card, incorporate this system of control. The records themselves display the frequency with which such controls are exercised and the results thereof.

Certain suggestions have also been made for future assessment of the work-load so that the Department is not, at any future time, taken unawares in making its administrative arrangements to cope with additional work-load, as it happened during the last War.

Public Relations

It was found that most of the public complaints were due to ineffective procedures. The streamlining of procedures, which constituted an important part of the enquiry, would obviously go a long way to eliminate causes of public grievances and dissatisfaction. The possibilities of installing enquiry counters for attending to public complaints were also examined and a special proforma drawn for enabling the 'clients' of the departments to obtain a reply to their complaints and queries within a reasonable time.

Conclusion

Apart from the benefits which are likely to accrue in the form of clearance of arrears of tax collection, increase in efficiency, saving in cost and improvement in public relations when the recommendations made are implemented by the Government, the O & M enquiry into

the Income-tax Department has a special significance. It is the first enquiry of its kind which has been conducted in India at the level of a Department. For the first time, detailed procedural analysis and 'timing' of jobs has been attempted to determine work-loads of certain types of office work. This, and the proposal that the top administration should have at its disposal adequate mechanism for exercising control over strategic points, are two of the important contributions made by the enquiry to the development of the O & M techniques in the field of public administration in India. It is to be hoped that the methods of investigation, evolved during the enquiry, would prove valuable in similar enquiries which may be carried out in other departments, thus giving rise in due course to a country-wide movement for overhauling the structure of government machinery and methods of work on a scientific basis.

"It is much wiser to build the structure round the men and the work than to push the men into the cells of a prefabricated honey-comb. Consequently the structure should be flexible. Consequently too, reports of external 'organisation and methods experts', who are ill placed to appraise correctly the human factor...are liable to be mis-leading."

—A. LOVEDAY
(in "*Reflections on International Administration*")

SELECTION OF OFFICERS FOR THE ARMED FORCES

Sohan Lall

BEFORE the second world war, selection of officers for the Armed Forces in India was made by the traditional method of a written examination in school subjects followed by an interview. The war brought on a sudden and considerable expansion of the forces and officers were needed and had to be recruited in very much large numbers. Candidates offering themselves for recruitment to the commissioned rank were so numerous that the traditional methods proved inadequate to cope with the problem. The written examination taken by a large number of candidates is necessarily a long drawn-out process while the urgency of the situation demanded a very quick verdict on the candidates' suitability. The written examination was, therefore, dropped and selections made purely on the basis of interviews. The first interview was by a Provincial Selection Board, and those who succeeded went before a Central Interview Board, which made the final selection.

Though this system shortened the time consumed in the process of selection, it brought into prominence a new problem. Cadets selected by interview alone showed a wastage of nearly 40 per cent at the Officers' Training School. So large a wastage dislocated the plans for the expansion of the forces and some way of reducing the wastage without unduly prolonging the process of selection had to be found.

Meanwhile, a method of selecting officers for the Armed Forces, based on the use of techniques of applied psychology, had been evolved in the United Kingdom. This method, with suitable adaptations to suit local conditions, was introduced as an experimental measure in India early in 1943. An experimental "Officers' Selection Board" was set up at Dehradun and the new techniques employed by it were studied at first-hand by senior officers of the Armed Forces and by members of the Defence Consultative Committee. By July 1943, a number of Officers' Selection Boards were set up in India and the rest of the recruitment during the war was made through these Boards which were later re-designated as "Services Selection Boards" (S.S.Bs.).

Until 1948, the methods used by the Selection Boards were more or less the same as those used by similar Boards in U.K. Towards the

end of that year, the Government of India appointed a Committee to study the working of Selection Boards and to suggest ways and means for improving their efficiency. The methods now employed for the selection of officers for the Armed Forces in India are largely based on the recommendations made by this Committee.

II

There are broadly four main methods for selecting people for particular jobs. First, there is the system of examination of candidates in school subjects. This tests their academic knowledge and attainments and also helps to some extent in the assessment of intelligence and clarity of thought and expression. However, it tells nothing about whether the candidate has the requisite temperamental and other personality qualities which may be very important in the context of the particular job to be done. Secondly, there is the method of the "formal interview" where a candidate is questioned by a few selectors for a period of 15 minutes to half an hour. This can give only a superficial indication of academic knowledge and learning; and though it does help to give glimpses of personality traits, they are only 'indications' and may not fully reveal the real personality. A third method is that of 'situational tests'. In this technique the candidate is asked to do an elementary job similar in nature to the one he would be called upon to do if recruited. During the test he will be under observation by selectors who can see how he approaches the job, how he handles himself, his tools and other aids and come to an assessment of how successful he is likely to prove after recruitment. The fourth method is that of 'Projective Technique'. This is based on the principle that no man can avoid projecting his true personality in his responses to questions and tests and situations provided the latter are properly designed and presented. A trained psychologist can always prepare, from the candidate's responses, a pen-picture of the various aspects of his personality.

Each of the above methods has its strong and weak points. Mankind has not been able to evolve so far any *single* method of selection which could be regarded as perfect. The present method of selection used by the Armed Forces in India is a combination of all the four mentioned above. It is hoped that by utilising all the four different techniques and pooling the results the error in assessment of a young man's suitability for recruitment to the commissioned rank would be minimised.

Young men offering themselves for recruitment as officers in the Armed Forces have first to take a written examination in English,

Mathematics and General Knowledge. Each subject carries 300 marks—a total of 900 for the whole written examination. Candidates who pass the hurdle by securing a prescribed minimum of marks in the examination are sent to the Services Selection Board for assessment of personality traits.

The S.S.B. in assessing the personality of the candidates uses the methods of the Formal Interview, the Situational Tests and the Projective Technique. The Interview is conducted by the President of the Board sitting alone. He is a senior officer with the rank of a full Colonel.

The Situational Tests are conducted by a Group Testing Officer (G.T.O.). The candidates have to participate in these for a couple of days. They begin with a Group Discussion, followed by a Planning Exercise in which a problem is presented to them and they have to work as a group to evolve a solution. Next they go on to the Progressive Group Task (P.G.T.). Here, a group of candidates is generally required to carry a heavy or big object over a number of obstacles. They are given some material to help them in getting across. The group has to think and work as a whole. It is followed by a Group Obstacles Race (G.O.R.) wherein two groups, carrying a heavy object, race over several obstacles. Then comes Half Group Task in which only half the group works. The test is of the same nature as the P.G.T. The candidates have also to do a Command Task in which they are put in command of a group and have to get the assigned work done. They also go over Individual Obstacles and deliver a Lecturette. Finally, there is the Final Group Task which is very similar in nature to the Progressive Group Task. These tests are designed to reveal the extent to which the individual candidates possess qualities of initiative, resourcefulness, decisiveness, co-operation and leadership—qualities which are essential for manning the officers' cadre in the Armed Forces. While the candidates are participating in the Situational tests, the G.T.O. observes each individual closely. Each group which he watches generally consists of 8 to 10 candidates.

In the Projective Technique which is administered by the Technical Officer of the S.S.B., a candidate begins by answering two questionnaires in which he gives detailed information about his family background and school life. He also indicates his interests, his hobbies, the reading that he does apart from his text books, the games he plays, etc. Thereafter he takes two tests of Intelligence—one Verbal and the other Non-Verbal, followed by another confirmatory test in cases where a discrepancy is observable in the first two tests. Next the candidate is put through the Word Association Test, the

Thematic Apperception Test and the Verbal Situation Test. This process takes one full day.

After the testing has been completed, each testing officer (the Interviewer, the G.T.O., and the Technical Officer) writes a full report on every individual candidate. The Board then meets in a conference and after discussion allots marks to the candidates. The total number of marks with the Services Selection Board is 900.

Candidates who obtain the necessary qualifying marks at Services Selection Board are sent for medical examination. Candidates found medically fit are further given Physical Efficiency Tests and are awarded marks for their physical potential out of a maximum of 200.

In effect, the candidate is really trying to score marks out of a maximum of 2,000, the break-up being as follows :—

| | |
|------------------------------|--------------|
| Marks by U.P.S.C. | 900 |
| „ „ Services Selection Board | 900 |
| „ „ Medical Board | 200 |
| Total | <u>2,000</u> |

The marks obtained by the candidates at the U.P.S.C., S.S.B. and the Medical Board are added together and a final merit list is prepared on the basis of the aggregate scored by each candidate. Selection is then made from the top of this list according to the number of vacancies available.

III

It is natural to ask "What would happen if the same candidate went before different Boards ? Will there be any consistency in the verdict of the different Boards so far as that particular candidate is concerned ?" To answer this question, an experiment was conducted. All the four Boards of the Armed Forces were moved to one station. A batch of 150 young men were put through each Board separately. The marks awarded by each Board to these 150 candidates were then correlated. The coefficient of correlation between Boards worked out to .73—an encouraging figure.

In this experiment an attempt was also made to compare the marking standard of the different Boards. For this purpose, the mean

mark for each Board was worked out. The figures obtained are given below :—

| <i>Board</i> | <i>Mean Mark</i> |
|--------------|------------------|
| I | 371.4 |
| II | 372.1 |
| III | 365.1 |
| IV | 335.8 |

It will be noticed that the Boards I, II and III have mean marks which are very close to each other. Board IV shows a variation. This is understandable as this Board was selecting candidates for the Indian Air Force and was thus applying a slightly different procedure. Candidates for the Indian Air Force are also put through Pilot Aptitude Tests which are not given by Boards I, II and III.

As regards the validity of the present method of selection of the army officers, the three main questions which arise are :

- (1) How has the present method of selection affected the wastage at the training institutions ?
- (2) How does the assessment of the Selection Board compare with the performance of the candidates at the training institutions ?
- (3) How does the assessment at the time of selection compare with the performance of the officers when posted to army units ?

The answer to the first question is conclusive. Follow-up studies have revealed that the wastage at the training institutions has dropped from 40% to about 3 or 4%.

Studies have also been conducted in regard to the second issue. The marks obtained by the candidates at the time of selection were correlated with the marks obtained by them at the time of passing out from the training institutions. The coefficient of correlation comes to .54. This is a satisfactory figure, considering that coefficients of correlation in such studies rarely go above .2 or .3.

The third issue—post-recruitment performance—is still under investigation. A five-year follow-up study has been launched in which the performance of the officers during the first five years of their service will be studied. Five years have not yet been completed since this project was started. Data is still pouring in.

IV

For ensuring correct and efficient use of psychological techniques employed by the Services Selection Boards, it is obviously necessary to have a high-power research organisation to help them. Such an organisation exists in the Ministry of Defence and is known as the "Psychological Research Wing" of Defence Science Organisation. The main functions of the research organisation are :—

- (1) Constructing and standardising of new tests which are used by the Services Selection Boards;
- (2) Training of Officers, selected for posting to the Services Selection Boards, in the methods of interview, test administration and interpretation of results;
- (3) Conducting follow-up studies; and
- (4) Conducting research to answer technical problems.

Among other things, research was needed to overcome the basic question : "What should the Services Selection Board look for in a candidate ?" This is how it was done : All officers of the Indian Army with the rank of full Colonel and above were requested to give their opinion about the qualities of personality which an officer of the Armed Forces should possess. A large number of replies were received. These answers were studied and a list of qualities was evolved. The qualities decided upon were, to give a few examples, 'initiative', 'organising ability', 'resourcefulness', 'courage', 'ability to exert influence on a group', etc. A Rating Scale was prepared which was used by each member of the Selection Board while assessing candidates.

It was noticed, however, that quite a number of qualities in the Rating Scale overlapped. Research was conducted further to study this aspect. Two studies of Factorial Analysis were carried out on two age groups. Coefficients of correlation were worked out between the different qualities and common factors extracted by the Centroid Method. Factor Loadings for each quality were calculated. Qualities showing low Factor Loadings were considered for rejection. Nonetheless it was considered desirable to get more evidence before the revised list was finalised. The experiment conducted for assessing the reliability of the S.S.Bs produced data to show which qualities were being more reliably assessed than the others. The assessment regarding a few of the qualities varied considerably from Board to Board while the assessment of other qualities showed a high degree of consistency. To supplement this data, the members of the Selection Boards were further asked to report on : (1) The qualities which

they could assess directly and confidently from the tests used. (2) The qualities which were not directly observable from the test responses, but were being *inferred* from other qualities. For example, if a candidate showed co-operativeness it could be inferred that he had team spirit too. (3) Qualities which could not be assessed with the tests available.

On the basis of the evidence thus derived from different sources, the list of qualities of personality required in a candidate was revised. The revised list is in use now.

Another important and essential work of the research organisation lies in the field of construction of tests. Although a number of tests are available in the foreign countries, they cannot always be safely used in this country. The cultural differences between foreign countries and our own are likely to vitiate the test results. An example may be given to illustrate the point : A western psychologist designing the test to ascertain the degree of mother-attachment of a young lad might introduce, in the Thematic Apperception Test, a picture showing a young man kissing good-bye to his mother at the railway station. The responses of a western or northern American candidate, who is asked to give his reactions to such a picture, would always reveal to the trained psychologist the extent to which abnormal or unresolved mother-attachment plays a part in his total personality. Such a picture could obviously not be used in India for the same purpose. The sight of a young man kissing his mother in public would evoke in Indian youth feelings and emotions quite different from those which a western psychologist would expect to find a western youth. To suit the Indian conditions more reliable data might be obtained from a picture showing a young man saying good-bye to his mother by folding his hands and doing a '*Namaskar*', or better still by touching her feet. Furthermore, the value and validity of even the best and most reliable tests tends to be vitiated by continuous use and publicity. New tests have, therefore, to be constructed and validated from time to time.

Test construction is a lengthy process involving a lot of experimentation. There are various types of tests, each with its own technique of construction. Tests are constructed and tried out on a population of the type on which they are subsequently meant to be used. They need a considerable amount of readjustment and comparison with existing tests before they can be finalised for selection. Normally, it takes nearly two years to produce a fairly suitable test.

The above are examples of the type of research that is needed. Problems of this nature are constantly arising and require answers

after scientific investigation. The research organisation has to tackle these and give the answers to the Boards. Experience has shown that unless the Selection Boards are backed by such an institution, they find it difficult to maintain their efficiency.

V

It has been stated earlier that each candidate is assessed by three assessors who use three different techniques, namely, the Formal Interview, the Situational Tests and the Projective Technique. How their assessments are correlated may be explained here. A Rating Scale giving the list of qualities required to be assessed is in possession of each assessor. The assessor puts a tick at the appropriate point on the scale. The Rating Scale is full of adjectives which are liable to be interpreted by different people in different ways. To make a uniform assessment possible, each one of these adjectives has been defined and a 'Glossary' given to each assessor. For example "resourcefulness" has been defined as "the capacity to improvise a solution when in a tight corner." The word 'improvise' implies that the resources are not enough and the candidate has to show his resourcefulness by finding a solution with what is available.

The different tests used by different assessors are regarded by them as one whole. They do not take the evidence from any one particular test as conclusive. In the whole battery of tests which are available in the Situational Test Technique and Projective Technique, there is one test which gives a good deal of information about different qualities. The information from the other tests is used to confirm or reject the hypothesis which is formed as a result of the candidate's reaction to the main test.

In the Situational Tests, the main test is the Progressive Group Task. The Group Testing Officer may find that a candidate does not show enough courage. The test provides for risky situations to be courted in order to obtain a solution. The G.T.O. may notice that a particular candidate is avoiding them and expecting other members of the group to bear the first risk. At this stage this is only a hypothesis. The G.T.O. therefore carefully observes the candidate's behaviour in other similar tests, for example, the Half Group Task and the Final Group Task, to see if his initial hypothesis is confirmed or not. The other two tests, therefore, become confirmatory tests.

In the Projective Technique, the main test which throws out possible hypotheses to the Technical Officers is the Thematic Apperception Test. If from the responses of this test, the Technical Officer

has evidence that the candidate is rather retiring by nature, he wants to confirm it by the other data available with him. He would look to the responses of the Word Association Test. If he finds that here too the candidate shows his retiring nature, he looks back to his family history in the responses to the Questionnaire. He may notice from there that the candidate is perhaps the only child in a family and forced to find his amusement in solitary rather than group activities. Further, the Questionnaire Responses may reveal that the candidate does not play team games but is fond of Patience or Ludo and that his only recreation is Reading. All this evidence from various sources goes to confirm his initial hypothesis that the candidate is probably a retiring type and does not like mixing in society very much.

The above examples show how the tests used by each assessor are taken as a whole. Individual tests mean nothing. It is the entire battery of tests which gives valid results.

The three techniques used—The Interview, Situational and Projective Tests—have equal weightage. It may be re-emphasized here that it is not any particular test but the whole technique which is considered for weightage.

VI

To conclude, the method used by the Armed Forces in India, for selecting their officers, is broadly speaking the usual traditional method, namely, a written examination followed by an interview. The only difference is that the interview is made more systematic, comprehensive and thorough, and therefore more accurate. The word interview here is used in a broad sense including the Formal Interview, the Situational Tests and the Projective Technique. The Formal Interview consisting of asking questions across a table is supported, in this method, by other psychological techniques.

The method is slowly becoming known to other 'employers' besides the Armed Forces. The Psychological Research Wing has from time to time received an increasing number of queries from Government departments, business firms and educational institutions, asking for information and help for the possible introduction of the method in other fields.

If the method is to be applied to any other type of selection, suitable tests will have to be devised for the particular end in view. It would be necessary first to carry out job analyses and other connected research to decide what qualities are to be looked for in the candidate.

Tests designed to bring out these qualities would then have to be constructed and validated. A sufficient staff of trained testing officers would also have to be put to the job.

The present writer feels that the Situational and Projective techniques employed for the selection of Army Officers can be usefully extended to the selection of the civilian personnel for most of the executive and administrative jobs. Opinions may differ about the extent to which human personality is susceptible to detailed psychological analysis and how far human performance is predictable on the basis of such an analysis. But, by and large, for all purposes of success on the job—whether in civil services or the armed forces—the modern psychological tests can go a long way to assist in the selection of right type of persons.

MANAGEMENT STUDIES AND TRAINING

L. S. Chandrakant

ON the initiative of the All-India Council for Technical Education and with the support of the Central Government, a programme of Management studies is being developed in certain selected educational centres, and an Administrative Staff College is in the course of establishment in Hyderabad in association with industry and commerce. A National Management Organisation has recently been formed, and regional management bodies have started functioning in over ten centres with the active participation of a large number of individuals and firms. These represent the first positive and conscious steps taken towards the development of Management studies in the country. The keen interest evinced by industry and commerce and the general public in the above schemes shows that Scientific Management, which has been largely responsible for the great advances, made in America and parts of Western Europe, has at last reached the Indian sub-continent.

Regional Centres For Management Education

The wide diversity of business activity and the vastness of the country have made it necessary to organise the programme of Management studies on a regional basis, in seven different centres. The Indian Institute of Technology in Kharagpur, and the All India Institute of Social Welfare and Business Management in Calcutta, cater to the needs of the Eastern Region; and the Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute in Bombay and Department of Business Administration, Bombay University, to the needs of the Western Region. The Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore and Department of Business Management, Madras University look after the Southern Region; and the Delhi School of Economics, the Northern Region. In close co-operation with industrial and commercial organisations and the Institute of Social Welfare and Business Management, the Delhi School of Economics, and the Business Management Departments of Madras and Bombay Universities. Industrial Administration and Industrial Engineering are the main concern of the Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur, the Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore, and the Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute, Bombay, which are essentially technological in character.

Training for Management—A Process

Although there is no single universally accepted definition of Management, there is general agreement that it is concerned with the directing and co-ordinating of the activities of groups of people. The American Society of Mechanical Engineers has defined it as “the art and science of organising and directing human effort applied to control the forces and utilise the materials of nature for the benefit of man”; and Ordway Tead in ‘The Art of Administration’ refers to Management as “the comprehensive effort to direct, guide and integrate associated human strivings which are focussed towards some specific ends or aims”. Henry Fayol gave a more matter-of-fact definition—“to manage is to forecast and plan, to organise, to command, to co-ordinate and control”. To ‘foresee and provide’ means examining the future and drawing up the plan of action. To ‘organise’ means building up the dual structure, material and human, of the enterprise. To ‘command’ means maintaining the designed activity among the personnel. To ‘co-ordinate’ means binding together, unifying and harmonising all activity and effort. To ‘control’ means seeing that everything occurs in conformity with established rules and expressed command. It is thus apparent that management is essentially concerned with people on the one hand, and with the accomplishment of certain tasks or group of tasks on the other. In fact, it means getting people to employ their various skills to the best advantage in applying certain procedures and methods for the attainment of some set physical ends.

Here then, are the essential functions of management; a static function embodying procedures and methods, comprising planning and control; and a dynamic function involving human contacts, that is co-ordination and motivation. Ability in management involves practical knowledge of, and a facility in, applying the sciences and the arts on which these rest. Other specialised knowledge and skills are undoubtedly necessary to a manager, their nature and extent depending upon the position held by the individual manager; but they constitute merely the background against which he is carrying out the task of management.

Training for management is therefore a *process*, in which the ability to analyse, explain and control the complexities of a mechanism is developed through the interplay of different disciplines and new knowledge and skills.

The American Experiment

How the process of training for management has been facilitated varies from country to country. However, as the nation with the most spectacular record of technological progress during the last four decades and where Scientific Management originated and has been practised successfully, the U.S. experiment is of great interest to the whole world. In the Colgate University, a practical approach in Business Administration is provided by assigning each student a commercial, industrial or business operation. The day is spent in various jobs, studying at first hand the problems of management and labour, of production and distribution, and late in the afternoon there is a group meeting in a seminar to exchange experience and discuss problems. After a full term, there is a return to the College for further academic works. In the Bernard M. Branch School of New York's City College, which is a pioneer in the field of Business and Public Administration, specialised instruction takes up only part of the curriculum. A certain amount of education of arts, humanities, social sciences and natural sciences is included in the programme in order to ensure that the graduate is *educated* as well as *trained* in the human and social factors involved in the management of a purposeful and economically successful enterprise.

Harvard University, a great leader in the movement for education in business administration has, perhaps, done the best work, but so in different ways have Illinois and Cornell Schools. Harvard, with some other universities has done first class work in the analysis of what a worker expects of a job and how the firms have failed to give it to him. The problem is not purely economic, nor psychological or sociological. It is one of real business administration requiring a knowledge of business and economic principles, policy and practice as well as humanistic discipline. It is in a fuller understanding of this problem which Taylor called a 'mental revolution', that the success of American enterprises lies; and no small part of this success is due to the fact that American business, big and small, and trade unions are employing graduates of business administration in their central research organisations. These results could not have been accomplished by any group from any arts college, by any group of physical scientists or by any one skilled only in 'commerce'.

In all the 300 and odd institutions in the United States a drift strongly away from 'commerce' to business administration characterises the training programme. The increasing size of business units in both production and distribution, the application of statistical

controls to production processes, wider use of research of many varieties, the changing size and character of union organisations, the explicit acceptance of community responsibility by businessmen, the recognition of the importance of the specifically human element as distinct from the purely monetary, have all combined to make training for management purposeful. The curriculum consisting of 40% business subjects, 40% traditional, liberal and cultural subjects, and 20% economics is designed to produce a man not only with a practical outlook but with an education as well.

Board of Management Studies

The present scheme of Management studies as also of the Administrative Staff College in India is based on the recommendation of the All-India Council for Technical Education which, as far back as 1948-49, considered the matter in great detail. The Council set up an Expert Committee consisting of its different Boards of Technical Studies, representatives of industry and commerce, departments of Central Government and educational experts to examine the question of training in Industrial Administration and Business Management, and to suggest a national plan for development of facilities in these fields which might be readily initiated. The Committee was of the view that, the subject of Management studies having become in recent times vast and diversified, with each field tending to become more and more specialised, the usefulness of the courses of training will largely depend upon the extent to which industrial and commercial organisations in the country will benefit in the matter of training of their managerial personnel. The selection of the courses, therefore, would have to be made on the basis of the existing pattern and structure of industry and commerce in the country, the nature and scope of employment of managerial personnel, the peculiar problems of the organisations and other related factors. The state of educational development in the country and the resources available for organising Management courses, the Committee considered, would also have to be taken into consideration while choosing the courses and determining the scope of training. For the purpose of organisation, development and co-ordination of Management studies at a national level, the Committee recommended the establishment of a Board of Management Studies under the aegis of the All-India Council for Technical Education. A Board of Management Studies fully representative of all concerned interests, *viz.* commerce and industry, government departments, educational institutions and management experts, has now been set up. It advises the All-India Council and the Government on all aspects of Management studies.

Part-Time Studies

If Scientific Management is accepted as a long-term objective, the country has gradually to proceed towards its realization according to its own genius, resources and requirements. Both in the matter of application of the philosophy of management to the industrial and commercial activity in the country, and of training of the managerial personnel, it will not serve to follow blindly other countries where the philosophy of management originated and has been practised successfully for a long time. Nor will it serve any useful purpose to produce in India a replica of the Harvard School or the Massachusetts Institute of Technology or Cornell or any other famous Institution. We should gradually imbibe the philosophy of scientific management and adapt it to our own peculiar socio-economic conditions, history and tradition. A change in the existing order of things is certainly necessary. But the change should not be just for its own sake. It should be for bringing into being something better and more useful. While the rich experience of the United States and other advanced countries will certainly be useful, adaptation rather than adoption of the principles and techniques in vogue abroad should be the prime consideration.

The Board of Management Studies has, throughout its deliberations, kept the above considerations foremost in view. The Board has proposed that, so far as Management Studies are concerned, three distinct types of courses, viz. Business Management, Industrial Administration and Industrial Engineering should be provided. The type of persons who should be admitted to the courses and the centres where the courses might be developed were also carefully determined. The courses in Industrial Engineering and Industrial Administration are essentially meant for persons with appropriate technological background and industrial experience; the course in Business Management for persons with a commerce or economics background and business experience. The choice of the institutions for organising the courses further reflects the efforts made to adapt scientific management to the existing conditions of the country. The Industrial Administration and Industrial Engineering courses, because of the particular fields of management which they will emphasise in relation to industrial activity, are being organised in the institutions which are essentially technological in character. The Business Management course has been organised in institutions which have established a reputation for the study of economics and social sciences.

The courses will be mostly offered at this stage on part-time basis. This decision is based on the consideration that the immediate

need is to train persons who are already in employment, and such persons can take full advantage of the courses only on a part-time basis. There is also considerable difficulty in recruiting well-qualified experts to staff the institutions for a full-time course. On the other hand, for a part-time course, it should generally be possible—and experience has shown that it is so—to obtain the services of experts in industrial and commercial organisations. The participation of such experts in the courses will have the additional advantage of the courses not tending to become too academic in character, and unrelated to real situations.

Administrative Staff College

The Administrative Staff College which is in the course of establishment in Hyderabad will offer a three-month course in the principles and techniques of organisation, administration and leadership in civil life. It will also provide opportunities to young administrators from all walks of national life to meet and exchange ideas to their mutual advantage. Such an association will be valuable not only for the “cross-fertilisation” of ideas and techniques among them, but also as a means of promoting better understanding among those in charge of administration in different spheres of national activity. The Staff College will be a national institution, fully independent and without any affiliations while receiving the support of the public and the Government alike.

As industrial and commercial enterprises as well as the activities of the Government become increasingly widespread and complex, the administrators in charge are required to show a capacity “to hold in mind a total and perhaps distant situation, to plan ahead imaginatively and firmly and yet with the necessary margins, to assemble in the right relation and at the right time diverse material and human resources, to take consistent decisions on points of detail and, in turn, to see that their junior executives in their several spheres know how to do the same.” In short, every large enterprise calls for the constructive skill and leadership, policy making and planning which are not simply gifts of nature. Training is necessary.

The constant changes in the spheres of business and Government also demand a closer appreciation of the outlook and problems of both private enterprise and the public services on the part of the persons who are in charge of them. In the interests of the country’s development, their relations and mutual understanding need to be improved. Opportunities should be provided for the two main categories of administrators—the officers of the private and the public

services—to meet and understand the difficult situations in which they are placed, and the different responsibilities which they carry so that each may acquire, so far as may be, the characteristic virtues of the other and shed his own characteristic defects. These are at present laboriously and inadequately acquired by individuals by a process of trial and error. The training at the Administrative Staff College would lay emphasis upon bringing the work of a team to good effect, and upon the basic fact that those who are called upon to do this will be drawn from different backgrounds of activity and experience. The task is to make a co-ordinated group out of individual specialists. It is one that grows more difficult with each further step in technological development. What the Administrative Staff College hopes to do is to bring together young administrators from all walks of national life at an age when their views are formed but not fixed, to provide for the exchange of their ideas to mutual advantage and to promote better understanding between them. It must, however, be emphasised that the College has no concern with preparatory training. Its constituency is among men and women already experts but needing the opportunity to reflect, to compare notes and to equip themselves more fully for their services.

National Organisation for Management

The chief contribution of a national management body is its continuing influence in raising the standards of management throughout the country and maintaining these at a high level. The country has committed itself to raising the standard of living of the people as rapidly as possible through expansion of activities both in the public and in the private sectors. These activities can only achieve their objective to the extent that they are well managed. While there is considerable evidence of good management in certain fields of activity, the country has so far lacked organised facilities for development of scientific management. This void can only be adequately filled by a national management body which well set for itself the task of promoting progressive development of scientific management. Working with all other management organisations, it can consistently develop ideas and means for strengthening and utilising such facilities. It can establish its branches in the various parts of the country; organise conferences both regional and national, on Management; maintain a library of Management literature; encourage preparation, production and circulation of books, papers, results of specific studies, conference proceedings, periodicals, films and visual aids which contribute to the understanding of management practice and techniques and current developments in this sphere. It can

also provide a well-equipped information bureau and give lead to management research. Management organisations have already been established in Bangalore, Bombay, Hyderabad, Delhi, Coimbatore, etc. and have become active centres of Management movement in their respective areas. Thus, the seeds of scientific management have been sown. It is to be hoped that the All-India Management Association which has recently been formed will soon be able to provide the necessary leadership and co-ordination to integrate for the benefit of the nation as a whole the fruits of the effort made by the regional bodies.

Training in Foremanship and Supervision

In any scheme of managerial talent and skills with particular reference to industry, one cannot by-pass the Foreman and the Supervisor. The Foreman has been variously described as "the Sergeant Major of Industry", "the man who is in the first rung of the management ladder." Modern industrial organisations, rendered necessary by competition both within the country and outside, to say nothing of the effects of modern legislation, have all thrown an increasing burden on the Foreman. The Foreman today is required to be an expert craftsman and a leader of men—two qualities which have become necessary more than ever before. In addition, his position as a junior executive calls for a thorough working knowledge of the firm of whose organisation he is a vital part. He is in daily contact with the Production Engineer, the Production Controller, the Estimators, the Rate Officers, the Time and Motion Study Engineers, the personnel of Wages and Costs Departments, and a host of others. If he is to co-operate fully and intelligently with these experts—and this should be his aim—he must know something of their organisation and methods and why and how they can be of some service to himself and he to them. It is therefore in the fitness of things that a programme of training in Foremanship and Supervision should be initiated and developed on a large scale in order to condition and equip the persons on whom the success of the industrial enterprises will largely depend. An appropriate step in this direction has been taken by the Board of Management Studies by preparing a national programme for the purpose which aims at the creation of a net-work of facilities for training in foremanship and supervision, distributed over the whole country.

STATISTICS AND PLAN ADMINISTRATION

B. Ramamurti

TILL the second world war, statistics were mostly a by-product of administration and regarded more as an index of results than as a basis for action. There was no dynamic relationship between statistical activity and administration. This was so even in some of the advanced countries. The second world war showed that for maximisation of war effort the Government had to take upon itself a number of new regulatory functions and that their administration could be run only on facts.

With the attainment of Independence, the adoption of the new constitution and the acceptance of a welfare State and a socialist pattern of society as the ultimate goal, the sphere of State activity in social and economic fields has been greatly enlarged. The country has now entered into an era of planning and the various activities of the State are getting woven more and more into an integrated whole.

Planning implies the fixing in advance of certain specific overall national targets, decided on consideration of short and long range needs on the one hand, and feasibility of accomplishment on the other. Thus, the two main targets of the second Plan are an increase in national income by 5 per cent. every year and an expansion of employment opportunities so as to absorb the addition to the labour force during the plan-period besides relieving under-employment in agriculture and in cottage and small-scale industries. The detailed targets in the different sectors are based on a survey of the goods and services consumed at present, the demand for such goods and services with the additions to income, and the possible levels of production that can be achieved with the available resources, both internal and external.

The production of a given quantity of one commodity requires appropriate quantities of other material. Hence the plan targets get inter-locked through inter-industry relations. The targets have to be internally consistent in the sense that the requirements should be balanced by supplies—of material, men or money, as the case may be. The formulation of the Plan thus obviously required a large and varied amount of detailed statistical information of many kinds such as inter-industry relations, increment of income and of employment per unit of additional investment, pattern of consumption of different goods and

services and how this pattern is likely to change with the increase of income.

From the point of view of the implementation too, the Plan has ultimately to be broken down into a number of schemes or targets, some of which are to be executed by the Central Government, some by the State Governments and local bodies, and others by private industry. A Plan cannot, therefore, be conceived of or implemented except through targets and statistics relating to them. Statistics are likely to become increasingly important as an administrative aid for the prompt and efficient attainment of the Plan targets. There has been recently a segregation, in some States, of the development functions from the normal regulatory ones, but it is doubtful if this segregation will ever come up to, or proceed beyond, the level of the Collector. Statistics are, thus, today an essential equipment in the tool-kit of all administrators who have anything to do with the execution of development plans. Here two things are important :

First of all, planning implies an integrated approach and it is, therefore, important for every administrative agency to realise this and to know broadly how the Plan has been arrived at, how the development of the schemes assigned to it is intrinsically related to the entire Plan of the country, how the short-falls in the execution of its own schemes would adversely affect the development of the Plan as a whole and how short-falls in other sectors would impinge upon its own. To illustrate the point, it would be necessary for those engaged in implementing agricultural schemes to know, for example, what would be the requirements of irrigation facilities, fertilizer etc; and unless these requirements are met according to the Plan, the schemes for agricultural production cannot succeed. The schemes involving heavy investment on basic industries and on services with the consequent increase in income cannot be carried out successfully without risk of inflation unless the production of consumer goods and services is adequately stepped up.

Secondly, the Plan aims at securing the greatest possible rise in the level of living with the resources available. That means an optimum utilisation of the resources and the best possible efficiency for a given effort. It means economy not only in regard to expenditure but also in regard to utilisation of manpower, materials and equipment. It follows that every administrative agency should watch carefully and precisely the progress made from time to time in regard to its schemes, compare the achievements against the targets fixed, and constantly review the efficiency of implementation. Such a review and critical assessment are necessary in order that the pace of development follows

the programme laid down, and that corrective steps may be taken at each stage of progress rather than it be discovered at the end of the plan-period that things had not gone well. In short, the administrative control system must measure accomplishment continuously and compare actual progress with what was expected.

II

How is a continuous review of plan-implementation to be undertaken at the various levels ? What should be the appropriate statistical review-techniques and control-mechanism ? Before considering these two important questions, it may be interesting to describe briefly here how similar problems have been handled in industry and office management by some of the operation study techniques already developed.

In industry, the techniques of Statistical Quality Control (S.Q.C.), developed during the last three decades, are being extensively used with considerable resulting gains in mass production. The ultimate object is to control and improve the quality of the end-products and to bring the deviations from the standard within the specification limits laid down. The method consists in observing the 'variations' at each stage of the manufacturing process through statistical control charts, and studying how far these conform to the control limits set on the basis of prior experience. If the variations are considerable and exceed the control limits, the matter is referred to the technicians for investigation and for taking corrective measures. The result is again watched through control charts and adjustments made to bring the entire manufacturing process under control. Obviously, this ensures better quality of the final product. The other alternative is to wait till the final product is manufactured, then inspect and reject if it does not conform to the specifications. That would mean considerable inspection-load and wastage of materials, time and other resources. On the other hand, the S.Q.C. enables the spotting out of defects as they develop, and taking of timely remedial measures to correct them.

The control charts are based on observation of a sample of the products at each stage. It has been found by experience that the S.Q.C. yields the maximum results if the specialist in Quality Control could get the workers themselves and their executives "Quality-Control minded." The control charts could easily be explained to the workers. In other words, the success of the technique depends on the teamwork of the Quality Control experts, technicians and operators and also the management. It is, therefore, necessary for the top

management to appreciate the advantage of Quality Control methods and to encourage their use.

The Statistical Quality Control charts can be instituted at each stage of production. They may be very detailed ones at the lowest level, *i.e.* at the level of the individual worker. The amount of detail generally decreases as one goes from the worker to the top executives; the latter need only a few charts showing the broad position on the level of quality attained at each stage.

The same principle applies in a general way even to office management. The Central O & M Division which was set up about 3 years ago is motivated by similar objectives in the field of office work. According to Shri S.B. Bapat "In simple terms it (O & M) means paying intelligent and critical attention not only to what is done, but also to how it is done and at what cost in terms of labour and money; *paying attention to the machine and its working processes and not merely to its end-product.*"* The Division has instituted a system of statistical abstracts—(1) a return of primary receipts pending at the end of the month and (2) monthly statements of cases pending over a month. These serve as an indicator of comparative efficiency in disposal of work. A Quality Control drive was also undertaken and certain "case studies" in regard to speed and quality of work have been conducted. The latest studies are being undertaken on a stratified-cum-random sampling basis. It may, however, be mentioned here that the system of statistical returns helps to spot only the accumulations of arrears of work; it does not in any way show the changes in the quality-standards. The nature of office work is such as it is not possible to fix very precise targets or to lay down detailed specifications for assessment of work-loads. It may be possible to evolve certain statistical measures of office efficiency both in terms of quantity and quality of work, but these would involve lengthy and complicated calculations and the effort spent may very likely defeat its very purpose.

III

Reverting to the subject of the country's Plan, it may be mentioned that a high-level "Committee on Plan Projects" was recently set up with the object of ensuring economy, efficiency and speed in the execution of the Plan schemes. To this end the Committee proposes to conduct, in collaboration with project authorities, investigations and studies for evolving suitable form of organisations and methods and for standardisation of techniques. Considerations of

*IJPA, Vol.I, No.1, p.61

economy consistent with efficiency would obviously require measures for most effective utilisation and conservation of the existing resources, material, financial and human. The studies which the Committee might undertake should include a review of the progress made in the implementation of selected plan projects, an investigation into the causes which impede further progress, an assessment of the present work-loads and potentialities of the existing organisation and methods of work to achieve the final targets, and proposals for improving speed and efficiency of 'execution'.

The terms of reference of the Committee on Plan Projects, however, do not cover the devising of a suitable control mechanism to ensure a continuous and steady progress in the implementation of the Plan in all its details. The control mechanism for regulating the progress of the Plan schemes becomes increasingly essential as the country proceeds from one Plan to another. While it is possible to experiment with different methods and techniques of production in regard to a single commodity or service, it is not so in the case of the country's economy. It is too early to say what would be the final form of measures of control. But, essentially these would have to be in the nature of the statistical operational control. Statistical techniques, thus, hold the key to the solution of the problem of regulating the pace of plans of development.

The control mechanism, to be effective, would have to start with individual schemes. The evaluation of progress in individual schemes should not be a difficult task. It calls for only a few basic statistics, relating to outlay, output or benefits, requirements of men, materials and equipment. In respect of each of these, the actuals should be judged against the targets laid down. It would be necessary to examine the causes of short-falls and to devise measures to overcome them. If, in spite of that, it is felt that the targets could not be achieved, the targets are to be revised.

At a higher vertical level, it would be necessary to review the progress of all schemes falling within a certain sector as a whole, say, industry. This would require not merely a study of the progress of individual projects but also of the overall progress, the relative efficiency of the different units, the reasons for the poor performance of some of the units as well as for the good performance of the more efficient units.

Besides the evaluation of specific projects and sectors, there is need for an assessment of the over-all progress in the implementation of the Plan. Thus, the District Development Officer should review as a whole the progress of the schemes being implemented in the district. It would not be possible for the District Development Officer,

however intelligent he may be, to form a precise idea of the progress only through personal observation. It is necessary that statistics should be collected, processed and maintained in a form, which could be easily understood by the executive machinery. The district statistical agencies, now being set up by the State Governments under assistance from the Centre, could be of much use in this regard. The District Development Officer should be able not only to assess the progress of the Plan as a whole at the district level but also to watch the overall impact of the developmental schemes on the life of the people.

The above equally applies to the State and National levels. Here, the progress of the Plan requires to be continuously watched both vertically and horizontally by the implementing agencies as well as by the planning bodies. At both these levels, it is desirable to study, through suitable statistical series and economy indicators, not only the progress in regard to the attainment of physical targets but also the impact on economy, the increase in resources, income and living standards, etc.

At the overall level, besides the evaluation by the implementing and planning agencies, there should be an objective evaluation done by an independent evaluation organisation. The Programme Evaluation Organisation in the Planning Commission supplies this need in regard to the community projects and national extension service. Such evaluation needs to be extended to the entire Plan and for the entire economy.

The principles of review and control when applied to the country as a whole leads to the idea of a flexible Plan. In the case of industrial products the specifications are generally fixed in advance, keeping in view the requirements of the customers, and do not generally admit of any relaxation; but the targets for the economy as a whole, cannot in the nature of things, have the same rigidity. The Plan must have the requisite flexibility and resilience to give it a dynamic character.

IV

It would not be out of place to mention here the recent attempts made to get the entire statistical organisation of the country geared to the needs of planning. A number of studies relating to national planning were undertaken by the Indian Statistical Institute and the Central Statistical Organisation so as to provide the basic data for the formulation of the Second Five Year Plan. Suitable forms for the reporting of projects and progress in their implementation have been designed along with instructions; and statistical agencies are assisting

the executive bodies in regard to the accurate filling up of these forms. They call for comprehensive data in all aspects—investment output, employment, materials and equipment, and would help to ensure a continuous watch of the progress. Steps are being taken to adopt a phased programme of active “progressing” of the implementation of the Plan by statistical agencies in the Centre and of the States. With a democratic approach to planning, the presentation and dissemination of statistics relating to the Plan and its progress, through charts, diagrams, exhibitions, have also become important. An Exhibition Hall is maintained in the Central Statistical Organisation depicting in graphs, charts and diagrams the developing economy of the country. Pictorial representations are being increasingly made available to the public.

For making an effective use of statistics in relation to planning, attention has to be concentrated on improving their timeliness, quality and coverage. Studies would have to be undertaken not only in regard to average performance but also apart the variations in performance, the best performance and the worst performance with an analysis of the causes for the same. A number of technical co-efficients, capital-output ratios, capital-employment ratios, employment-output ratios, norms of material requirements, yardstick of production in relation to various inputs, etc. will also have to be systematically worked out and maintained. Studies will also be required of consumer demand, input-output ratios, social accounts and related flows, and the like. Attention has also to be paid to the problem of measurement of disparities as between different regions, and between different social and economic classes.

The development of statistical measures for controlling the implementation of the Plan would invariably involve a wide use of sampling techniques. There already exists, since 1950, a National Sample Survey Organisation as the multi-purpose fact-finding agency of the Union Government for continuous collection of data on a sampling basis, required for purposes of national income and national planning. The scope of sampling techniques has recently been enlarged to cover even office procedures and progress of Plan projects. As examples of sampling methods in new fields may be mentioned the survey of newspaper readership conducted by the National Sample Survey Organisation for the Press Commission; the sampling plan for overall evaluation of the large number of local development works all over the country, prepared at the request of the Planning Commission; and the sampling of the huge pile of refugee applications in order to determine the magnitude of their overall demands. Sampling techniques would have to be widely used in evolving control measures

for regulating the operations of the Plan. The conducting of such "operational" studies, practically so far unknown in India, will require a high degree of co-operation between statistical, planning, executive and administrative agencies.

Sampling not only provides a scientific basis for estimation of the position as a whole but has also the psychological aspect of toning up efficiency of each unit. As each unit has an equal chance of being included in the random sample, fearing so it would by itself try to make the necessary efforts to tone up its own programme.

V

To sum up, planning implies a continuous process of formulation, implementation, evaluation, re-formulation etc. Statistics and statistical techniques form an indispensable tool at every stage in this continuous process. Though a great step forward in development of statistics has been taken during recent years, much still remains to be done especially in regard to plan control and plan evaluation which will enable the statistical agency to draw (as in S.Q.C.) the attention of the authorities promptly as soon as it is found that the schemes are not proceeding according to schedule or that some weakness in the economy is developing, so that the necessary corrective measures may be taken by the administrative agencies with utmost expedition.

As has been conclusively shown by the use of S.Q.C. in Industry, and by O & M in the Office Management, the success of the statistical measures of control of the implementation of the Plan would depend not only on the proficiency of the statistical agency, but also largely on how far it succeeds in making the administrative and executive agencies "statistically minded" and in convincing them of the utility of statistics. The statistician also cannot be fully successful in his task unless he is in close touch with the subject in which he applies his statistical techniques and with those concerned with the execution of projects in that field.

In this context, the question of dissemination of statistics in a manner that could be easily understood by the executive agencies is important. While detailed control statistics may be maintained at the lowest levels, the less detailed and the more attractive are the control statistics presented to the higher executives the more effective will be their appreciation and utilisation. On the other side, there should be sufficient realisation on the part of the administrator of the need of statistics and statistical techniques for this purpose. He must have some basic understanding of the statistical method. It would

be helpful in this regard if, in the courses of training generally given to the probationers of the administrative services, suitable instructions are imparted in the elements of statistical method, the sources of official statistics, their coverage and limitations and the importance of statistics in plan administration. The administrator should thus have sufficient knowledge to be able to recognise the potential contribution that statistics and statistical techniques have to offer. He should demand facts about matters on which decisions and policies have to be made. He should encourage the use of statistics and point out defects, if any, which come to light in the process of the utilisation of these statistics. At the same time the statisticians should realise that while statistical facts and the trend they indicate or the story they tell do play an important part, policy making has perforce to take into account many other factors which could not be quantified.

The comparative usefulness of different methods or techniques may be simultaneously studied in industry, but no similar experiment can be carried out on alternative economies. Here, guidance and foresight are provided mostly by hind-sight, *i.e.* critical review of the past performance. Planning thus gets its momentum from the achievements of the past. Better implementation and better evaluation of the past Plans would lead to a better Plan in the future; and experience with mechanism of operational control in other countries has shown that this can be achieved only through a team-effort of the administrative, executive and statistical and other technical agencies.



RECRUITMENT AND TRAINING FOR PUBLIC SERVICES

(We reproduce below the two working papers which were prepared for the Seminar on "Recruitment and Training for Public Services" which was organised by the Institute at New Delhi on the 3rd March, 1957. These papers will also be further considered at the annual conference of the members of the Institute to be held at New Delhi on April 7, 1957—Ed.)

I

RECRUITMENT TO PUBLIC SERVICES

BBROADLY speaking, a university degree in arts, or the pure sciences, is an essential qualification for direct recruitment, not only to the administrative and the executive Services in India, but also to many of the sub-executive and higher clerical Services. For the lower clerical Services, the academical qualification required is either intermediate in arts, or science, or a matriculation. The criticism is levelled against the present system that it encourages far too many persons to study for university degrees, resulting in overcrowding in the universities, and fall in the standard of higher education. Further, that university education is not really required for the executive, or clerical, Services, and that a great deal of waste of time and energy of young persons would be avoided if they were enabled to enter such Services at a lower educational level, and thus to acquire, while they are still young, the knowledge and skill needed for work in the Service. The critics cite in support the recruitment system in the United Kingdom, which is designed to link recruitment to definite stages in the current educational processes; the administrative class takes a share of the best products of the universities; the executive class, with some exceptions, draws its recruits from the Sixth Forms of the secondary grammar schools; the clerical class mostly from the less bright products of the same schools; and the sub-clerical cadres depend on the products of the modern and technical schools. The age of entry to each of the classes is also adjusted to the college and school-leaving ages.

2. The other view is that, with some modifications, in regard to the lower cadres, the present recruitment system should continue.

The reform of the educational system, it is argued, should be determined by broad educational and social considerations, and sought directly, and not through altering recruitment qualifications. So long as the educational system yields graduates in numbers sufficient for meeting the requirements of the executive, sub-executive and the higher clerical classes, it is in the interest of the public service that these classes should continue to be manned by graduates whose intellectual training and attainments, and greater maturity, cannot but prove useful to work in the Service. The fact that a proportion of posts in the administrative and the executive Services is filled by promotion from the executive and lower Services, respectively, is urged as another reason for retaining a degree as an essential qualification for recruitment to the executive and the higher clerical Services.

3. The real area of disagreement is confined to the executive, sub-executive and the higher clerical Services, and it may be considered whether a degree should remain a qualification for direct recruitment to all or any of these Services.

4. There is yet another point of view, which while recognising that the higher executive and administrative Services require maturity of outlook, intellectual training, and background of knowledge, considers that where appointment to those Services depends on the results of a written competitive examination, a university degree should not be insisted upon. The intellectual and other qualities would, many case, be tested at the competitive examination, and insistence on a university degree, it is argued, only leads to overcrowding in the universities.

5. Direct recruitment to the administrative and most of the executive Services is made—with few exceptions—on the result of competitive examinations, the scheme of which is based mainly on the ideas that there should be—

- (a) a test of intellectual ability and scholastic attainments through a written examination in subjects of the candidate's choice, which might or might not have any direct relevance to a civil servant's work (optional papers);
- (b) a written test common to all candidates, designed to test capacity for effective thinking, sense of form, power of clear and lucid expression, and general knowledge (compulsory papers); and
- (c) an interview to assess a candidate's personal qualities, including certain intellectual qualities which cannot be tested at a written examination.

6. This scheme of competition represents a compromise between, or, as its supporters say, a harmonious blending of, three different views about what should be looked for, and how, in a candidate for an executive or administrative Service (as distinguished from a technical or professional Service). One of these views is that it is not necessary to look for knowledge of particular subjects that would be of direct utility in the Service; that the search should be for good mental equipment and intellectual training as such; and that there is such close affinity between the qualities needed for academic pursuits, and for work in the Civil Service, that the person who distinguishes himself in one, is likely to distinguish himself in the other. This faith in the value of scholastic discipline and attainments for selection of civil servants was first propounded by Macaulay in the 'thirties of the last century; it determined the character of the I.C.S. examination almost entirely until 1921, and largely until the examination was given up; and it is still the assumption underlying the optional papers. Sharply contrasted with this is the view that the object of selection should be the assessment of the entire personality of a candidate, and to match the person chosen with the nature of work in the Service. The best example of this method of selection is Method II for recruitment to the administrative class in the United Kingdom. Instead of examining the purely intellectual qualities of candidates by setting them written papers calling for the sort of knowledge and mental ability demanded by an Honours degree in a British university, the Civil Service Selection Board tests the candidate's potential working ability in dealing with hypothetical administrative problems. The candidates are required to have at least second-class Honours degree, and to appear at a written examination in essay, English and general papers. This written examination is, however, mainly a qualifying rather than a competitive one; and the ultimate selection is made on the results of personal tests and interviews extending over some three days. In between these two contrasting approaches—one looking for intellectual qualities and attainments as such irrespective of the subject studied, and the other seeking specific personal qualities needed for the type of work in the Civil Service—there is the French system, which aims at selecting for the administrative class, persons with intellectual ability and training, but whose intellectual training has been in subjects which, in French view, provide the essential background, and knowledge, needed for work in the Service. The French entrance examinations for the School of National Administration are largely designed on this basis. Three out of the four papers which every candidate has to write, relate to politics, economics and sociology; the fourth deals with knowledge of a foreign language; and the candidates who have been declared admissible have to write

a further paper on administrative law, financial science and legislation, social economy, or history of international relations, according to the section of the School they wish to enter. The French, in effect, push vocational training back into the university years, and encourage candidates for their administrative class to specialize in the social sciences.

7. In the Indian scheme of competition, the optional papers recognise the importance of intellectual equipment and attainments as such. The compulsory papers seek to provide a sort of counterpoise to narrow academic specialization, and at the same time to test abilities and interests required for work in the Civil Service. And the personality test, which underlines the importance of personal qualities, has something in common, with the U.K. Method II. Where low marks at the personality test are not merely a handicap, but constitute a disqualification, the personality test may tend to assume at least equal, and perhaps, more decisive importance than the written intellectual tests. This is borne out by an analysis of the results of the I.A.S. and the Allied Services examinations held during the years 1947-'55. Roughly speaking, one out of every five candidates qualified at the written test, and was called for interview; and of those called for interview, two in every three candidates were disqualified. Many of those disqualified had done extraordinarily well at the written examination.

8. The questions that arise for consideration are :

- (i) Does the general scheme of competition in India require any modification; and if so, what ? and
- (ii) Is the conception of a personality test, at which candidates who do not give evidence of certain personal qualities at an interview, lasting 20 to 30 minutes, are disqualified, a sound one ?

9. Graduates in agriculture, and civil, mechanical or electrical engineering, are eligible for the I.A.S. examination; but those in other branches of engineering, or technology, for instance, chemical engineering, or metallurgy, are ineligible. The argument usually advanced in support of these exclusions, is that the study of professional and technical subjects does not ensure the degree of general cultural outlook, required in an administrative officer, and usually found in graduates in arts or the pure sciences. Against this, it is pointed out that the scheme of the competitive examination is such that a candidate whose interests are confined to professional, or technical, subjects, cannot possibly get through, as he will have to take some

optional papers in subjects outside his professional and technical speciality, to do well in the compulsory papers, and to show, at the personality test, that he has some general and cultural interests. It is further urged that if a degree course in commerce can be regarded as providing liberal education, and one likely to develop a broad cultural outlook, a course in engineering, or technology, ought not to be considered to be devoid of cultural value, or incapable of developing a broad outlook. To the argument that entry into the administrative Services of persons with technical and professional qualifications would involve wastage of highly trained manpower, which is in short supply, the answer given is that not many such persons are likely to succeed; that persons with technical and professional degrees should not be allowed to have a feeling that the door to the highest Civil Services in the country has been firmly closed against them; and that a small number of technically qualified persons coming into the administrative Services would bring with them something of special value to those Services. They would not function as specialists; but they would, so to speak, serve as a useful bridge between the specialists, and the administrative and political part of Government. Technical problems, it is added, are bound to assume increasing importance, and that, while that is no reason to look for technical qualifications in administrators, it would be equally wrong to consider technical knowledge a disqualification in an administrator. The point to be considered is whether persons with technical and professional degrees should, with or without any distinction, be made eligible for the various executive and administrative services.

10. In our defence forces there is a system of recruiting cadets, between 14-16 of age, who, after a training of 4 years, are commissioned into the Indian Army, Navy or Air Force. The training is both in general and professional subjects, the object being the attainment of the requisite educational standard, and the acquisition, at the same time, of the mental, moral and physical qualities essential to the progressive and continued development as an officer. It is sometimes suggested that a similar system should be adopted for recruitment to the administrative Services; that in other words, the State should take charge of the education of its future administrators by catching them young. Against this, it is urged that it would not only create a feeling of exclusiveness among the administrative Services, and thereby widen the gulf between them and the public, but would also deprive the future administrators of the benefits of a truly liberal education which the universities provide partly through opportunities for close contact between students of different disciplines, and with diverse aims, aspirations and interests. A training academy, howso-

ever well-equipped and staffed it might be, would lack the academic and cultural atmosphere of a university, and would promote intellectual in-breeding, rather than a widening of outlook and interests. It is further said that the virtual loss of prospects of entering the administrative Services would have a depressing effect on university students, and increase the sense of frustration that already exists. The suggestion may be considered in terms of its likely effects on the Services, as well as on university education.

11. A certain proportion of the recruitment to the administrative and the executive Services is by promotion from the lower Services. While the proportion in the case of the administrative Services is only about 25%, it is usually higher in the case of the executive Services; in some states, in fact, there is hardly any direct recruitment to the State Civil Service. One view is that there should be more recruitment by promotion; this would increase the incentive for good work among the personnel of the lower Services, and would bring into the higher cadres tried and tested men who had proved their worth as functioning civil servants. It is also sometimes said that while inequality of educational opportunities handicaps talented persons from the poorer classes in direct recruitment to the higher cadres, they are able to prove their real worth once they are in service, and that more promotions are therefore likely to "democratize" the higher cadres, without lowering their efficiency. On the other side it is urged that work in subordinate capacities gives to a civil servant a restricted outlook and approach, and that he is usually not able to adapt himself to the requirements of a higher Service; further, that if the higher executive and administrative Services are to get their due share of the cream of the universities, the bulk of the recruitment to those Services must be direct; for, a talented young person would not wish to enter the civil service at a lower level.

12. It has been suggested from time to time that there should be some over-age, lateral, recruitment to the higher grades of the administrative Services, regularly. The object of the recruitment would be to bring into those Services persons who had distinguished themselves in other walks of life—*e.g.* the academic or the industrial—but who, possessing aptitude for administrative functions, wished to change their profession. Such men, it is said, would bring new ideas, and experience into the Service, and act as a most useful leaven. The points usually urged against this suggestion are that it would be difficult for such persons to acquire the outlook, and master the techniques and subtleties of public administration, and that over-age recruitment would have an adverse effect on the prospects, and therefore, on the morale of the regular recruits.

II

TRAINING OF CIVIL SERVANTS

EVERY year the Union Public Service Commission holds a combined competitive examination for recruitment to a dozen Services. Two of the Services to which recruitment is so made are all-India Services, *viz.* the Indian Administrative Service and the Indian Police Service and the others are Central Government Services. The examination is confined to Graduates of recognised Universities. The subjects in which the candidates are examined have no direct relevance to the work they would have to do on their appointment to government service. The examination is designed only to test the general intelligence of the candidates. The candidates appointed on the basis of such an examination have to be trained to enable them to acquire the necessary knowledge and skill without which they cannot do any effective work in the service. In this paper an attempt has been made to give a brief description of the methods of training followed and also to draw attention to some problems that seem to deserve further examination.

The Indian Administrative Service Probationer, on appointment to the Service, is sent to the Training School at Delhi for a year. During this period he is required to study the constitution and five year plans of India, the criminal law of the country—*i.e.* the Indian Penal Code, the Criminal Procedure Code and the Indian Evidence Act—, Indian History in its social and political aspects, the general principles of Economics and their application to Indian conditions, the general principles of Public Administration and organisation of Government institutions, Hindi and a regional language of the State to which he is allotted. Proficiency in these subjects is tested by a final examination conducted by the U.P.S.C. and confirmation in the Service follows on the passing of this examination and the completion of a year of service.

The subjects for study in the School, except for criminal law and the regional language, are of no direct or immediate utility in making the officer fit to undertake even the work which would confront him in the first few years of his service before he is placed in charge of a district. An officer is normally expected to be able to become fit to hold the post of Collector by about the 6th year of service. For this

he requires and is given further training. But this further training is given on the job, following a regular programme, in the first year or eighteen months (the actual period varies from State to State). He is then given the responsible charge of a Sub-Division. For giving him a variety of experience not only is he transferred from district to district at intervals of a couple of years or so but he is also sent to the Secretariat for about 18 months to work as an Under-Secretary. All this is really intended to be training for making him fit for holding charge of a district or of other posts of equivalent responsibility. In the first year or 18 months, however, the training aspect is consciously emphasised and a regular programme of training is laid down. A good illustration of such a programme is that of the Madras Government. Not all State Governments have prescribed the programme in such meticulous detail but, by and large and subject to variations dictated by local conditions, the general line of practical training may be said to be the same.

The Indian Foreign Service, a new Service, has a programme of training covering the first three years of the service of a recruit. Except for the period of district attachment when he will get some contact with practical work and the period of Secretariat training, the programme primarily emphasises study of languages (Hindi and a foreign language) and of subjects knowledge of which is essential to an officer of the Service.

The recruits to the Indian Police Service are trained in the Central Police Training College at Mount Abu. The subjects for study and the training in drill, handling of weapons, etc. are more directly related to the normal work of a Police officer than in the case of the I.A.S. At the end of the year's training at this institution, these probationers also have to pass a final examination conducted by the U.P.S.C.

But on the completion of this institutional training, they are no more fitted to assume the responsibility of an Assistant Superintendent of Police, the first posting of an I.P.S. officer, than an I.A.S. officer is fit to hold charge of a sub-division. In his case also a detailed programme of training is prescribed. He learns his job by doing the work of various subordinate officers, under guidance. This training also lasts for about a year and it is only then that he assumes the normal responsibilities of an Assistant Superintendent of Police.

The recruit to the Indian Audit and Accounts Service spends a year at the department's training school at Simla. The training in

this School, however, differs in some material respects from that of the I.A.S. and even of the I.F.S. He has to study primarily the subjects which have a direct bearing on his work. In fact the examination which he takes at the end of the training is the normal departmental examination on subjects of which an adequate knowledge is necessary to enable him to do his work. (The I.A.S. officers have in addition to the final examination conducted by the U.P.S.C. to pass the departmental examinations of the States to which they are allotted within the first two years of their posting to the State. The subjects for these examinations are those which have a direct bearing on their work, viz. criminal law and local laws, revenue and tenancy laws, accounts, Civil Procedure, the regional language etc.) Since the subjects studied have a direct bearing on his work and since at the end of the training the officer is posted as an Assistant Accounts Officer, during training period itself arrangements are made for practical training by making him watch the work of the various sections of the A.G. Punjab and by attaching him to a district Treasury and a P.W.D. divisional accounts office for specified periods. It may be said, therefore, that the basic method of training followed in the case of the I.A. & A.S. recruit is "on-the-job" training or as similar to it as can be arranged when a number of trainees are in a central institution. In addition, instead of, as in the past, expecting him to pass the departmental examinations largely without guidance, he is given systematic instruction in these subjects.

The training of the Income-tax Service probationer follows the same pattern as that of the I.A. & A.S. probationer except that the period of attachment to the Training School at Calcutta is 18 months.

The Railway Board runs a Staff College at Baroda. It is not intended only for the training of the recruits to the Traffic, Transportation and Commercial Department and to the Railway Accounts Service. Several special and refresher courses are arranged for serving officers. The new recruits to the T.T. & C.D., however, spend a period in the Staff College. It is 3½ months, in two instalments of 2 and 1½ months each at the beginning and the middle of the two-year programme of training; and two months at the beginning in the case of the I.R.A.S. officers. The two months' course at the beginning is common to the two Services. The whole course of training is severely practical and the courses of study in the Staff College are directly related to the work of these officers.

In respect of one other Service, the Central Secretariat Service Grade III, training in a central institution, the Secretariat Training

School, is undertaken. Here again the institutional training is related to the work of the officers. On the completion of their training they may not be given charge of Sections, and may have to work as Assistants for a short while before they become Section Officers. The reason for this, however, appears to be not so much lack of trainee's knowledge of the work as the need for further practical experience before he can assume the supervisory responsibilities of a Section Officer.

In regard to the other Services, however, the training is on the job, under the guidance of experienced officers. The detailed programme provides for the trainee first watching and then actually doing the work of the various subordinates who will ultimately be under his control when he becomes a full-fledged junior officer of the Service. No special central training institution seems to have been set up in respect of these services though where one exists for other subordinate personnel, as in the Postal Department, the recruit to the Class I service may be sent to it for a period. The method of training followed by the Postal Department illustrates the practice adopted by these departments.

Certain general conclusions may, it seems, be drawn from the above account of the practice followed in respect of the various Services. The basic method of training to fit the individual for his work—to enable him to be effective—is on-the-job. This, however, is supplemented where conditions are favourable by instruction in a central institution in the laws, rules, regulations and manuals. The conditions that favour such a course are : (a) the subjects to be taught should be such that without positive instruction and guidance even an intelligent young man is likely to have difficulty in mastering them and in any case will waste too much time and effort; (b) there are enough recruits in a year to run a central training institution or alternatively an existing institution can be utilised for such training, in which case a much smaller number of recruits annually admitted to the Service could be trained in the central institution, and (c) since a new comer to working life is rather keen on getting down to a job of work, it will be possible to arrange for at least a reasonable amount of practical work even when the trainees are in a central institution. These conditions may, by and large, be said to be satisfied by the Services, which have arranged for central training though not in their entirety in the case of the I.A.S.

Where these conditions do not obtain, there is no possibility of running a central training institution. In such cases, however, it is possible, in fact it is a common experience, that the quality of the

training given varies and very often the trainee has to learn by a rather wasteful and perhaps avoidable process of irritating trial and error.

As mentioned earlier, the present method of training for the I.A.S. cannot be said to satisfy fully the third condition of giving a reasonable amount of practical training during the probationer's attachment to the Training School. It is not easy to arrange for practical training in a place like Delhi of the large number of persons annually recruited to the I.A.S., particularly if the practical work is to be, as it will have to be to serve a useful purpose, similar to the work they will have to do in the districts in the first few years. For one thing, the still considerable variations in the systems of administration, especially of land revenue administration, rule out not only practical training but even theoretical instruction in many aspects of his work.

Magisterial work requires a basic knowledge of law. In other words, practical work is not possible in regard to the bulk of the work of an I.A.S. officer in the first few years of his service. The most that can be done is to arrange study tours and visits to courts, district, sub-divisional and tahsil headquarters etc. and this is done.

Further though the basic post of the I.A.S. officer is that of District Collector, he is not confined to it and increasing numbers of officers are required for a variety of posts of general administration. The widening sphere of governmental activity which has led to the description of the higher Civil Servant as the "Social Scientist in Action" demand of the civil servant knowledge of the fundamentals of political science, economics, sociology, social psychology, anthropology etc., *i.e.*, of the social sciences, and in this technological age, some understanding of the physical and natural services also. A question that arises for consideration in this connection is whether in the central training of the I.A.S., efforts should be made to include instruction in these subjects in the curriculum. At least to teach law and Hindi some period of institutional training is necessary. This has been availed of to include in the curriculum some instruction in the Constitution, Economics, Indian History and principles of Public Administration. In the time available, and in view of the fact that a substantial proportion of recruits every year are purely Science Graduates, most of whom have had no contact worth mentioning with any of the Social Sciences, the standard of knowledge expected in these subjects at the end of the year's training is rather modest. The question thus resolves itself into a choice between leaving the curriculum unchanged or enlarging it but diluting the standards further or extending the period of training and insisting on an adequate standard of knowledge in the subjects of a wider curriculum.

Whatever may have been the justification in the past for leaving the acquisition of knowledge in these fields of study to the private unaided efforts of the individual officer, certain recent developments seem to indicate that the last course is inevitable. The first is the much larger annual intake of recruits which facilitates the entry into the service of a large number of young men who have made no attempt to get even a cursory acquaintance with subjects outside those taken for their Degree examination. Some positive steps to widen their background knowledge are essential. Secondly, there is a vital difference in the conditions of work introduced by the entrustment of the policy-making function to the political executive when compared with the conditions when policy decisions were taken by persons with the same background of education, training and experience. Thirdly, the sheer volume and pressure of work leaves little time for study and any steps that will help in obviating wasted effort should be welcome, especially as the very pressure of work deprives the young officer of the opportunities for personal guidance from his more experienced colleagues and seniors.

The curricula of training in the other departments which have set up central training institutions seem to be generally suitable for the purpose for which they are designed. It is, however, possible to argue in regard to the Services concerned with the collection of taxes that a combined course of instruction in the theoretical aspects of their work might perhaps be of benefit.

In regard to the I.A. & A.S., however, it is worth considering whether the assumption underlying the present course of training, *viz.* that its work is of so specialised a nature as to require separate training, is fully justified. Certainly, there is a considerable amount of technical speciality in audit work and some special training is obviously needed. But the holders of the higher posts in the department, who are drawn from the Service, have to give attention primarily to what is called higher audit rather than to mere technicalities. This work seems to require, a wider outlook, an understanding of social pressures and processes, and an appreciation of the administrative view point. Whether from this point of view, a combined course of basic training with the I.A.S. in the wider curriculum suggested earlier is not desirable seems to deserve consideration.

EDITORIAL NOTES

As promised, this issue of the *Journal* comes out at the beginning of the second quarter rather than towards its end. In effect, it has meant the publication of two issues during the first four months of the year.

Mr. Appleby's comments on "*Morale* at Subordinate Levels", which appear in the beginning of this issue, though recorded about three years ago, are still valid. It is on the quality and *morale* of the human element that the efficiency of the administration finally depends. Good organisation does help but without good personnel it is of little avail.

The present issue also includes two papers which were discussed at the Institute's Seminar on "Recruitment and Training for Public Services" held in March last. Another article briefly describes the present system of selection of officers for the armed forces. Problems of recruitment and training have assumed a new significance in the context of the complex and varied tasks which have devolved on the administrators with the launching of development plans. We hope to publish a series of contributions on these subjects in the future issues of the *Journal*.

—Editor

NEWS FROM INDIA AND ABROAD

INDIA

Re-organisation of Administration in N.E. Railway

The Railway Board has decided to introduce the "divisional" system in the North Eastern Railway in order to improve the efficiency of the railway organisation of that region. The N.E. Railway will be divided into seven divisions to be located at Lucknow, Banaras, Izatnagar, Muzaffarpur, Katihar, Alipur, Duar and Pandu. Each division will be under Divisional Superintendent who will function like a miniature General Manager, with complete powers of co-ordination of the work of practically all the offices in his division. The divisional system has for many years been in use on the Eastern and Northern Railways. It was introduced in the Central, Western and Southern Railways last year.

Trained Personnel for Agriculture

The Planning Commission has constituted a committee under the chairmanship of Shri P.N. Thapar, Secretary, Union Ministry of Agriculture, to examine the country's future requirements of trained personnel for agriculture and allied fields.

The terms of reference of the committee are : to examine the present position in regard to the supply of trained technical, scientific and administrative personnel, with special reference to existing or expected shortages; to make a fresh assessment of requirements for the second and the third Five Year Plans keeping in view the increased targets of agricultural production and the long-term proposals of development in different fields; to review the present programmes for the expansion of training facilities and the progress made in their implementation; and to recommend measures to augment the training facilities and formulate a phased programme to give effect to them.

Technical Audit Organisation for C.P.W.D. Works

In pursuance of the recommendation of the Public Accounts Committee, the Government of India has decided to set up a Chief Technical Examiner's Organisation in the Ministry of Works, Housing and Supply for technical audit of the works carried out by the Central Public Works Department.

To start with, a senior engineer of the status of a superintending engineer, assisted by two engineers of the grade of executive engineer, will be in charge of the Organisation.

The Organisation will be responsible for the inspection of important works during and after construction with a view to ensuring that the quality and progress of work are according to specification and schedule, and that no

unnecessary deviations are made during construction. It will also inspect works carried out departmentally for ascertaining that excessive use of materials and labour has not been made.

A Research, Design and Standardization Organisation for Railways

The Government of India has decided to merge the Central Standards Office for Railways and the Railway Testing and Research Centre into one organisation to be known as the Research, Design and Standardization Organisation. The new organisation will be headed by a Director-General who will be assisted by three Directors.

To make a concerted effort for furtherance of research activities and to secure the participation of important laboratories, railway research work would hereafter be controlled by the Central Board of Railway Research comprising (1) the Chairman, Railway Board; (2) Member (Engineering), Railway Board; (3 & 4) two representatives to be nominated by the Council of Scientific and Industrial Research. The Director-General, Research, Design and Standardization Organisation, will function as the Secretary of the Research Board.

Terms of Reference of Export Promotion Committee

The Government of India has set up a Committee to make a comprehensive study of, and recommendations on, the various aspects of trade promotion. Its terms of reference include : the nature of fiscal or other concessions and credit facilities necessary for stimulating exports and the procedure for giving this assistance; the lines on which special agencies such as Export Promotion Councils, Commodity Boards etc. should be developed; the assistance required for expeditious movement for export both by rail and sea; simplification of commercial transactions by provision of facilities for the settlement of trade disputes, conduct of pre-shipment surveys, quality control, standards in export goods, nature of propaganda to be conducted in foreign markets and the need for development of marketing agencies abroad and the adequacy of the service rendered at present by agencies like the Directorate-General of Commercial Intelligence and Statistics, the Trade Commissioners Organisation, etc. for promoting trade. Dr. V.L. D'Souza, former Vice-Chancellor, Mysore University, will be the Chairman of the Committee.

Scheme to Divert Educated Unemployed from 'White Collar' Jobs

The Government of India has sanctioned a pilot scheme to help the educated unemployed enter into avenues of employment other than 'white collar' jobs and also develop in them a sense of dignity of labour and reliance on self-help.

Under the scheme, four Work and Orientation Centres will be set up in the country, one each in the States of Kerala, Delhi, West Bengal and Uttar Pradesh. At each of the proposed Work and Orientation Centres, 250 educated unemployed, matriculates, undergraduates and graduates and registered with employment exchanges will undergo an orientation course for about six months. They will also be paid a stipend. The

Centres will give vocational counselling, manual work and some theoretical and practical instruction in the occupations selected with due regard to the aptitudes of the participants. The scheme will not guarantee subsequent placement in life, though some may get placed in positions in which shortages are felt. The instruction and orientation given, however, will be directed to giving them the necessary 'know how' to set up business either by themselves as entrepreneurs or in cooperatives.

Popularisation of Scientific Discoveries

The Council of Scientific and Industrial Research has set up an eleven-member Committee to devise methods for popularising discoveries of science and creating science-mindedness in the country. These methods, besides informing the public in regard to the research organised under Government auspices, will help to enlighten them about the impact the scientific discoveries have on their daily life. The Committee will first make a survey of the work done by various organisations, including Government departments before drawing up a programme of action. A sum of Rs. 5 lakhs has been provided in the Second Five Year Plan for the purpose. The Committee has as its chairman Shri K.D. Malaviya, Union Minister for Natural Resources.

Development of Inland Water Transport

The Government of India has set up a Committee under the chairmanship of Shri B.K. Gokhale, I.C.S. (Retd). Chairman, Tungabhadra Board, to examine the part played by inland water transport in the national transport system and to make recommendations regarding its future development. It will advise on measures for the increased utilisation of inland water transport; examine the prospects of increasing and extending the river and canal services; and suggest steps to be taken to achieve effective co-ordination between the railways and inland water-ways, including financial participation, appropriate allocation of traffic as between the two modes of transport and arrangements for through-booking.

It will also consider the organisation of an efficient country boat service on a co-operative basis, and suggest whether any special organisation is necessary to execute the schemes and how they should be financed.

Steps to Improve Speed and Quality of Performance

The Organisation and Methods Committee, consisting of all Administrative Secretaries to Government, which was set up by the Punjab Government in 1955 under the chairmanship of the Chief Secretary to Government has recently taken the following decisions : (1) Every Administrative Secretary should earmark an officer under him for Organisation and Methods work in his Department, and in order to review the working of the Department he should hold a meeting once a month attended besides himself, by the Deputy Secretaries, Under Secretaries, Assistant Secretaries, Superintendents stationed at Chandigarh and one or two selected Assistants. These monthly meetings are intended to ensure a continued assessment of defects in speed and quality of performance and the study of proposals for improvements. The Organisations and Methods Committee should meet once in three months to consider common problems facing all Administrative

Secretaries; (2) The various branches in the Secretariat should be reorganised to enable the Superintendent-Incharge to exercise more effective control; (3) The Superintendents and Assistants should be delegated more powers to dispose of unimportant cases; and (4) Work in the Finance Department should be rationalised to ensure speed and efficiency.

Checking with Anti-Corruption Department Prior to Sanction of Pensions

The Government of **Punjab** has directed the administrative departments to consult the Anti-Corruption Department and obtain its clearance certificate before sanctioning pensions to retired officers. According to the present procedure, the necessary sanction is issued by the Administrative departments on the basis of the report and certificate by the Accountant General, Punjab, and the record of service. The Government has now felt that consultation with the Anti-Corruption Department, before finalising pension cases of gazetted officers, is also necessary.

Benevolent Fund for Non-gazetted Police Personnel in Punjab

In the interest of the general contentment of the non-gazetted ranks of the Police Force, the Government of **Madras** has decided to set up a Benevolent Fund. The objects of this Fund are : to provide the non-gazetted personnel of the Force and their families with amenities such as reading rooms, night schools, community radio sets, play grounds for children, separate wards in hospitals for policemen suffering from T.B.; scholarships for the education of their children in deserving cases; monetary help to widows and dependents of the non-gazetted ranks; and financial aid in exceptional cases, such as prolonged illness, serious injuries requiring prolonged treatment.

The membership of this Fund will be voluntary, and the management of the Fund shall vest in a Central Committee which will, for the present, consist of the Inspector General of Police, who will be the President, the Assistant Inspector of Police, a Head Constable and a Constable. The resources of the Fund will be augmented by an annual Government grant equal to the amount realised by subscription from among the members of the Fund, subject to a maximum of Rs. 50,000/- per annum.

Madras District Collectors' Powers (Delegation) Bill, 1956

The President has given his assent to the **Madras** District Collectors' Powers (Delegation) Bill, 1956. The Bill empowers the State Government, by notification in respect of each State enactment, to authorise the District Collector to delegate to his Personal Assistant, either in whole or in part, any of the functions devolved on him by that law. Provision has also been made for appeals and revisions in respect of orders passed by Personal Assistant under the powers delegated to them.

A Youth Employment Service for Bombay State

In order to deal with the young and inexperienced school-leaving students as a special group of employment seekers and guide them in the choice of occupation and of training, the Government of **Bombay** proposes

this year to start Youth Employment Sections at the Regional Employment Exchange, Bombay, and the Employment Exchange, Nagpur. Arrangements for training the Officers who will be manning the Youth Employment Section at the pilot Exchanges are under way.

Extension of Merit System in Andhra Pradesh

The Government of **Andhra Pradesh** has decided that the system of recruitment to the ministerial posts through the Public Service Commission followed in the former Andhra State shall also apply to all areas added to it by the recent reorganisation from the former Hyderabad State where recruitment to ministerial posts used to be made through the Employment Exchanges and District Selection Committees.

FOREIGN

AUSTRALIA

Diploma Course in Public Administration

The Royal Melbourne Technical College, which hitherto offered a Certificate in Public Administration, has now decided to start a Diploma Course in Public Administration. The duration of the course will be 4 years, and classes will be held in the evening. The course is designed to provide general education in the principles and practice of Public Administration to government employees both in State and Commonwealth Public Services. The subjects for study include, among others, public administration, political institutions, elements of law, international relations, office practice, organisation and methods and public finance.

MALTA

A Civil Service Pay Commission for Malta

The Malta Government has appointed a Civil Service Commission composed of three U.K. experts, to undertake a comprehensive study of the pay and conditions of service of non-industrial staff in the Malta Civil Service and to submit recommendations for improvements. The Chairman of the Commission is Sir Arton Wilson, former Permanent Secretary of the U.K. Ministry of Pensions.

Out of the total number of 15,650 Government employees in Malta, only 6,907 are organised. A good 4,500 of these are drawn from the 8,600-strong non-industrial element in the Government service.

UNITED NATIONS

A Senior Consultant in Public Administration for the T.A.A.

Mr. Herbert Emmerich, till recently Director of the Public Administration Clearing House (now dissolved), has been appointed a senior consultant in Public Administration to the Technical Assistance Administration of the United Nations. Mr. Emmerich has served in the U.S. Government in various capacities and has wide administrative experience. In 1936-37 he was a staff member of the President's Committee on Administrative Management. For the past two years he has also been a consultant to the Office of Defence Mobilization in Washington, D.C.

UNITED KINGDOM

Standing Advisory Committee on Higher Grades

In accordance with the recommendation made by the Royal Commission on the Civil Service, the British Government has appointed a Standing Advisory Committee to review the remuneration of the Higher Civil Service. The Advisory Committee will decide whether the pay supplement which was granted to the middle and lower grades of the Service with effect from 1st April, 1956, should be extended to the Higher Civil Service.

UNITED STATES

Closure of the Public Administration Clearing House

The Public Administration Clearing House, which had fostered the growth of research and exchange of information in public administration since 1930, was dissolved with effect from December 31. The work of the PACH has been taken over by the Public Administration Service which is also housed, along with 13 other professional organisations, in the same building at "1313" East 60th Street, Chicago. Public Administration Clearing House, founded in 1930, devoted its initial efforts to the formation of the "1313" center, persuading appropriate organizations to make it their home, and establishing associations in fields where none existed. The central operations of PACH were financed with grants from the Spelman Fund of New York which dissolved in 1948 after making final grants. PACH was not endowed, and when its long-term grants expired, its Board concluded that its developmental phase was completed and decided to transfer management of "1313" to the organizations headquartered there. The first Director of PACH was Mr. Louis Brownlow; and Mr. Herbert Emmerich has been Director from 1945 onwards.

In addition to duties as general manager for "1313", the Public Administration Service will continue to carry out its growing programme of service to governmental agencies in surveys, installations, research, and publications.

Personnel Management Review Programme

The U.S. Department of Labor has recently inaugurated a personnel management review programme. Under this programme, there will be 3-man panels who will have the task of reviewing the work of each employee and of selecting persons for promotion, transfer or special assignment.

Award for Distinguished Service

The U.S. Civil Service Commissioners have established an award to bestow their personal recognition on exceptionally noteworthy service by Commission employees. The new award consists of a gold medal, five hundred dollars, and a citation signed by the three Commissioners. It is to be the highest honour the Commission can give to an employee and will be awarded only in the exceptional cases when the Commissioner's appreciation cannot be adequately expressed through the usual incentive awards.

BOOK REVIEWS

THE MAKING OF AN ADMINISTRATOR; By EDWARD BRIDGES, etc. Ed. A. DUNSIRE. Manchester, University Press, 1956. xv, 125p. 10s. 6d. (*Published on behalf of the Royal Institute of Public Administration—South West of England Regional Group*).

The volume "The Making of an Administrator" should make a wide appeal to administrators in India and to that circle of people who are interested in administrative problems. The five lectures included in this volume were delivered at Exeter as the 1954 series of Winter lectures organised by the South West of England Regional Group of the Royal Institute of Public Administration in conjunction with the sub-department of public administration of the University of Exeter. The object was to commemorate the centenary of the Northcote-Trevelyan Report on the organisation of the civil service.

The lectures were given by Sir Edward Bridges (now Lord Bridges), Permanent Secretary, H.M. Treasury, Mr. D.K. Clarke, Director of Research, Administrative Staff College, Henley, Lt. Col. Urwick, Sir Harold Banwell, Secretary, Association of Municipal Corporations, and Sir Henry Self, Deputy Chairman (Administration), Central Electricity Authority. The subjects chosen by the speakers respectively were "Administration: what is it? and how can it be learnt?"; "Educating the Administrator"; "Management and the Administrator"; "The Administrator in Local Government"; and "The Responsibility of the Administrator". The speakers, in dealing with their subjects, had a fairly free hand, and as a reading of these lectures will make it apparent, there has been a certain amount of overlap. The volume closes with a useful chapter headed "Comment" by Mr. A. Dunsire, Lecturer in Public Administration, University of Exeter, who has also provided an "Introduction".

The Civil Service in the U.K., in the first half of 19th century and earlier, depended a good deal on political patronage. Towards the end of 19th century, however, the patronage exercised by Government in filling the Civil Service with its nominees had come to a close. Nevertheless the Civil Service continued to be inefficient due to the appointment of unsuitable men, the appointment and retention of the physically unfit who often absented themselves for long periods from work, the mixing up of purely clerical jobs and those calling for genuine administrative ability, the wastage resulting from employment of good men on purely routine work such as copying, promotions based on favouritism, and discouragement of initiative caused by the practice of bringing in "outside" men to fill the more important vacancies. As a result of implementing the reforms recommended by the Northcote-Trevelyan Report, these defects were removed and an inefficient civil service was replaced by one which could be described as a model in integrity and efficiency.

Broadly speaking, the civil service in India has been based on that model with, of course, certain striking differences. The civil service model,

again, has been copied, with marked differences, by other private and public large scale organisations. Some main questions require a good deal of thinking in considering civil service reforms. On what does the success of the administrator depend? Is it necessary that he should acquire a certain type of education, should have a certain social background and a particular kind of upbringing? Is it possible to multiply the number of successful administrators by devising some method of training and providing it on a large scale? The general conclusion one comes to after reading Sir Edward Bridges' lecture is that administrative skill is essentially empirical and acquired more through practice than by training as such, whether theoretical or otherwise. Mr. Clarke's view is that it is possible to acquire this skill and this process can be speeded up by well-defined courses at proper stages in the man's career. Col. Urwick makes out that administration and management could be taught, and even a practising administrator could profit from formal instruction. Sir Harold Banwell confines his thesis to Local Government. According to him, there is no specific course of instruction in the art of administration. The basis of the civil servant's entry into his profession is really a good education and promotion are made within the service with reference to practical experience of the incumbents. The local government officer, however, much more than civil servant, performs professional duties on a functional basis, e.g., in the Treasury and Accountants Department, in the Engineering and Surveyor's Department, in the Health Department and so on. He concludes that, by and large, in the civil service, in local government and in industry, the right man gets the right place. He thus would seem to attach greater importance to a person learning by practical experience and retaining a broad and receptive mind. Sir Henry Self attaches great importance to administrative environment and traditions in producing effective administrators and stresses the need for leadership and for creating a desirable environment and building traditions of good administrative behaviour.

While it is clear that there are certain accepted desiderata as regards a good administrator, it is also clear that their role, training and work must differ from country to country. It is, therefore, essential, while reading the volume under review to keep in mind the special features of the progress of our country after independence, our special developmental needs. The vast increase in developmental activities in the country as well the tremendous responsibility taken on by Government in various fields require a considerable strengthening of the administration in India, both in numbers and in quality. In this light, questions like "Could administrative skill be taught or is it a natural growth?" would appear to be somewhat beside the mark. The need for increasing the number of administrators is so great that we must go in for training schemes for the administrators of various types and they must be multiplied rapidly, at the same time ensuring that the quality does not suffer. All possible methods of training must be utilised, e.g., learning on-the-job whether in the field or at the desk; formal instruction by lecture and group discussions, specialised courses in fields like personnel management and financial administration, conferences and seminars for exchange of ideas and information, and successive placement in different jobs of varying nature.

While it is possible to increase by these methods the number of administrators required, no amount of training can endow a trainee with

authorities should arrange to bring to the notice of local education authorities the particulars of children in hospitals for whom educational arrangements should be made. Local education authorities should make periodical inquiries of those hospitals likely to have young patients requiring education so as to ensure that the education of long-term child patients is not overlooked.

(2) For disabled young persons, placing alone is not sufficient. The youth employment officer should undertake a systematic and meticulous follow-up of all placings of disabled young persons so that as far as possible he can ensure that they are in suitable employment and do not drift to unsuitable work. The aim in view is likely to be achieved more satisfactorily if the attention of schools, parents and others concerned is drawn to the importance of giving adequate vocational preparation to disabled young persons rather than by compulsory use of the youth Employment Service. It is also important that the youth employment officer should have close contact with the welfare department of the local authority, so that young persons in need of welfare services can easily be referred for necessary assistance.

(3) The Ministry of Labour should assume full responsibility for ensuring that the placement of the blind is put on a satisfactory footing and should itself normally provide a placing service, thus relieving local authorities of the responsibility at present assigned to them. Local authorities and voluntary organisations at present carrying out the work satisfactorily should continue to do so if they wish, at any rate for the time being.

(4) Hospital authorities should approach the education authority with a view to introducing, whenever possible, education facilities of a kind suitable for tuberculous patients. In conjunction with chest clinics, the Ministry of Labour should inquire from time to time to ascertain what facilities might be introduced for the part-time training of tuberculous patients. More hostels of this kind for tuberculous persons whose home circumstances are unfavourable or for whom suitable employment cannot be found near their homes, should be established where they are found to be necessary. On the basis of registrations at chest clinics, inquiries should be made to ascertain how far there are appreciable numbers of ex-tuberculous patients remaining unemployed who, given the proper measures of rehabilitation, might once again resume work.

(5) Hospitals and the Ministry of Labour should consider the possibility of a wider use of arrangements whereby suitable patients before discharge from hospital are given courses at industrial rehabilitation units.

(6) In developing the mental and mental-defective hospital services hospital authorities should pay particular attention to the possibility of providing accommodation in annexes for patients with a residual instability who are employable. Deteriorated mental patients and low grade mental defectives need to remain as in-patients in mental or mental deficiency hospitals, but some of them are capable of training and occupation in

hospital workshops. Simple factory work might be provided for them by arrangement with local industry.

(g) Administrative Arrangements

(1) To secure the most efficient operation of these services, sensitive contact and willing co-operation is necessary between the various agencies and departments concerned, both at the centre and at the local level. Similarly, local coherence in the service can best be achieved by regular informal meetings between the local workers. To bring this about some particular initiative is needed which may come either from an individual, a voluntary association, a government department or a local authority. In the last resort, the local authority should take it upon itself to give the encouragement and the opportunity for such meetings.

(2) The question of overlapping and duplication might well be kept under regular review by the Standing Committee on the Rehabilitation and Resettlement of Disabled Persons. The Committee may produce further surveys on rehabilitation at regular intervals on the lines of their reports already issued.

and experts in psychology and sociology to suggest the specific items of Community Development Programme which can be usefully assigned to the Village Teachers.

2. The Programme Evaluation Organisation should make test checks to see whether the instructions issued by the C.P.A. as to what should be considered as fields of people's participation and how the same should be recorded, are being properly understood and followed.

3. A strong Action Committee may be formed at the Centre under the Ministry of Community Development with the representatives of various Ministries concerned to co-ordinate the activities of different Ministries and to review the progress in rural areas periodically so that no time is lost in protracted negotiations and there is no overlapping of functions and duplication of development activities. Special efforts should be made to see that delegation of powers to the required extent is completed in all the states with the least possible delay.

4. The role of the Collector and the B.D.O. in the development programme should be clearly laid down to avoid any misunderstanding and to achieve full co-operation of other technical officers in the programme.

5. The experiment of combining the regulatory and developmental functions in the same functionary beyond the Sub-divisional level being tried out in Bombay State might not prove satisfactory in the pre-intensive stage, but it might be given a trial on a limited scale, in the post-intensive blocks. If the results are encouraging, it may be extended to other post-intensive blocks.

U.K. COMMITTEE OF ENQUIRY ON THE REHABILITATION, TRAINING AND RESETTLEMENT OF DISABLED PERSONS. REPORT. *London, H.M.S.O. 1956. v. 126p., 5s. 6d. Cmd. 9883*

The Committee was appointed in March 1953, under the chairmanship of The Rt. Hon. Lord Piercy, jointly by the Minister of Labour and National Service, the Minister of Health and Secretary of State for Scotland, in order "to review in all its aspects the existing provision for the rehabilitation, training and resettlement of disabled persons, full regard being had to the need for the utmost economy in the Government's contribution, and to make recommendations."

The report of the Committee which was presented to Parliament in November 1956, contains the following major recommendations of administrative interest :—

(a) Hospital Services

(1) There is a shortage of almoners and psychiatric social workers. They should not be employed on duties which can be discharged by others, [and there may be room for the employment of less highly qualified assistants.

(2) Hospital boards should review and reorganise their present arrangements for the provision of physiotherapy so as to secure a purposeful graduated programme of activity designed to restore full function and to reorient the patient's outlook from that of an invalid to that of a responsible worker. The development of additional facilities, whether in day or residential centres, should take place as the need is revealed by hospital boards in their reorganisation and redeployment of existing resources in staff and in accommodation both for inpatients and outpatients at the convalescent stage.

(3) Regional hospital boards and boards of governors of teaching hospitals should review their present arrangements for resettlement clinics and should take steps to ensure that each major hospital sets up a clinic, meeting regularly to deal with cases referred by hospitals, general practitioners or others, in an area of convenient size surrounding the hospital.

(4) There is among general practitioners a lack of sufficient knowledge both of the facilities, for the rehabilitation and resettlement of the disabled, available to them and of the use which can be made of these, so that there is a need for the further education of the profession in this respect. Various measures to benefit general practitioners could be taken—in particular :—(a) visits to industrial rehabilitation units and vocational training centres, (b) meetings with disablement resettlement officers, (c) the inclusion of rehabilitation in the subjects studied in refresher courses provided under the National Health Service, (d) provision of information in the handbook issued by the Ministry of Health, and (e) provision in each area of a short leaflet setting out the facilities, accommodation and staff available for patients with disabilities. The Health and Education Departments, the Ministry of Labour and National Service, the Ministry of Pensions and National Insurance and the National Assistance Board should take all such steps as are necessary to provide the profession with the information it needs.

(b) Industrial Rehabilitation

(1) The larger share of what can be spared from the national resources for capital development for rehabilitation in the near future should be on the hospital side, but that some important existing industrial areas without industrial rehabilitation units should be supplied with them, particularly where this can be done relatively inexpensively, e.g. by the adaptation and equipment of existing premises. Industrial rehabilitation units should be ready to admit the rehabilitee at as early a stage as possible.

(2) The regional hospital boards should provide specialist services for those attending industrial rehabilitation units. This should be done wherever possible by arranging for a particular hospital to be linked with the industrial unit concerned.

(3) All new developments for industrial rehabilitation units for hospital rehabilitation centres should be planned with the facilities and needs of the other services in mind.

(c) Welfare Services

(1) Local authorities should be grant-aided by the Exchequer in their expenditure on services provided by them under Section 29 of the National Assistance Act. Any such grant should be available without distinction between the type of disabled person or of services concerned, but the rate of grant should need to be calculated having regard to the extent to which services have already been provided in some fields.

(2) In order to provide for close co-operation between the local welfare authorities and the hospitals, a suitable officer might be nominated by the local authorities to visit the hospitals and attend case conferences designed to assess the welfare needs of particular patients.

(3) Local authorities should assist permanently disabled persons living at home by providing them with necessary personal aids and that structural adaptations in the home now carried out by some local authorities, should be extended to all areas.

(4) The departments should make a study of ways and means of helping the disabled in the use of public transport.

(c) The Disabled Persons Register

(1) Since assessment for acceptability for work will often turn on medical evidence, specialist medical opinion should be available to reinforce or advise disablement resettlement officers and Disablement Advisory Committee Panels.

(2) The regulations governing registration should be amended so as to enable patients of hospitals or institutions who are able to engage to employment although still retained as patients in the hospital to be registered as disabled persons.

(3) The qualifying period for registration should be that the disability should be expected to last for a minimum period of one year in place of the present period of six months. A maximum period for registration should remain but it might be longer than the present period of five years. The regulations dealing with non-British subjects should be revised so as to provide that the benefits of registration are extended to all those who are in this country on a work permit without reference to any residential qualification, provided that the alien satisfies the normal eligibility conditions. The regulations should be amended to make provision for the voluntary removal of a disabled person's name from the register on receipt of a written request from him.

(4) The quota scheme has been of assistance in widening the opportunities of employment and in giving a measure of security, but in present circumstances its main value lies in its educational importance in demonstrating the wide range of occupations which can be undertaken successfully by disabled persons.

(5) The present method of appointment to the post of disablement resettlement officer is right. It is not necessary that disablement resettlement officers should be recruited from the ranks of social workers. The Ministry of Labour should take steps to secure that its methods of selection are such as to ensure that in all disablement resettlement officer appointments the fullest consideration should be given to the officer's suitability and inclination for this work.

(6) The disablement resettlement officers should deal with all the disabled persons within a specified area whatever their disabilities and they should continue to co-operate with voluntary organisations, hospitals, local authorities and doctors in that area.

(c) Sheltered Employment

(1) Sheltered employment is only second best to competitive employment, so that as many persons as possible should be encouraged to graduate from sheltered workshops to work under ordinary conditions. If sheltered employment is to be a success, the beneficiaries should be those who are willing to undertake the work provided and able to make a significant contribution to production.

(2) The powers of local authorities to provide sheltered employment, whether in workshops or in the home, whether for the blind or the sighted and whether under the National Assistance Act or the National Health Service Act should be transferred to the Disabled Persons (Employment) Act in so far as these powers relate to persons who can be regarded as being covered by Section 15 of that Act and are, therefore, able to engage in remunerative employment.

(3) The provision of work as defined in Section 29 of the National Assistance Act, in respect of the blind, should continue to be a duty imposed upon local authorities, but should be carried out under the powers to be given to them by the Disabled Persons (Employment) Act. The present system of augmentation of the wages of blind persons is not entirely satisfactory. It would be preferable to have a payment system which depended to some extent on incentive payment and had more regard to the value of the work done.

(4) There is need for more occupational homework for the home-bound which, while providing some financial return is chiefly beneficial for the mental and physical stimulus which results from engaging in a useful occupation. It is particularly desirable to improve the opportunities for disabled homeworkers to make outside social contacts.

(5) Local authorities should be encouraged to exercise their powers under Section 29 of the National Assistance Act to provide occupational homework as widely as possible.

(f) The Young Disabled

(1) Local education authorities should ensure that hospital authorities know what facilities can be provided for children in hospitals. Hospital

DIGEST OF REPORTS

ESTIMATES COMMITTEE 40th Report (Ministry of Community Development (C.P.A.) Part II] *New Delhi, Lok Sabha Secretariat. v. 97p.*

The main recommendations of the Committee briefly are as follows :

(a) Recruitment, Training & Promotion

1. The Community Projects Administration should bring out a pamphlet giving the State-wise requirements of the different categories of staff, their minimum qualifications, the mode of recruitment, the period and nature of training and the prospects of their future promotions. This pamphlet should be liberally circulated in schools and universities.

2. The minimum qualification of matriculation prescribed for the Village Level Worker may be relaxed, and the recruits should preferably belong to rural areas, and their headquarters should be in villages.

3. Training centres for the Village Level Workers and other categories of staff should be located in villages and advisory committees, consisting of officials and non-officials, should be formed for each centre.

4. Greater care is necessary in selecting right type of personnel specially for the post of B.D.O. who is the key man in the programme at the Block Level.

5. The training programme of the personnel required for Community Development programmes should include a working knowledge of the country's Five Year Plan and the development of a living faith in its objectives.

6. A Central Research Institute on Community Development may be established to solve the various problems which affect the lives of millions of people in the villages and later on five institutes, one in each zone, may be established. A conference of all Development Commissioners should be called at an early date for the purpose of ascertaining the detailed requirements of trained personnel in various trades and with a view to ensuring that the recruitment and training programmes during the Second Plan will be commensurate with the requirements.

7. The avenues of promotion of different categories of staff employed in the Community Development work should be fixed and made known to the staff. A percentage of higher posts may be earmarked for the Village Level Workers.

(b) Seminars and Conferences

1. The States, which at present do not hold seminars of non-official members of the Project/Block Advisory Committees should follow the

example set by others in the matter. The non-officials, specially the members of the Project/Block Advisory Committees should be deputed along with officials on study tours in India, as it will increase contact of officials and non-officials and encourage non-officials to take more interest in the programme.

2. The study tours in foreign countries should be undertaken only when it is assured that there is something worth studying in those countries which would be helpful in improving the existing development programme in India and the personnel should also include selected field staff.

3. The study circles should be constituted at the Block level and in village level workers' circles, and officers of all levels should be encouraged to take active part in the meeting which should be held at least once a month.

(c) People's Participation

1. An Advisory Committee should be formed and associated with the planning and progress of Community Development Programme at the State level. The Committee should consist both of officials and non-officials and have statutory obligations to meet and transact business entrusted to it.

2. The possibility of establishing a proper and satisfactory local-self governing body at the Block level should be explored as there is nothing at present of that nature in between the village Panchayats on the one hand and the State Governments on the other.

3. The Gram Panchayats should be brought more actively into the picture in regard to both planning and execution of the Community Development Programme. The village level workers and the various subject matter specialists (*i.e.* the executive officers) should hold at least one formal discussion meeting every three months with the Panchayat.

4. The local authorities should render technical advice and guidance to non-official organisations which are engaged in the promotion of village industries and in constructive activities, such as training in basic education, developing children's gardens, arrangements for bhajans, music, dance, etc.

5. The Ministry of Community Development should examine jointly with the Education Ministry the feasibility of making it compulsory for a college student to spend at least one month in a village camp before he becomes eligible for a University degree. These village camps should be properly planned and organised to enable the participating students to get a first-hand knowledge of the Community Development activities, and also to make some useful contribution thereto.

6. The country's Five Year Plan should be made one of the compulsory subjects for study by all college students.

(d) Administrative Co-ordination

1. A co-ordinated scheme should be formulated, through an expert body consisting of both officials, including some of the eminent educationists

INSTITUTE NEWS

I. I.I.P.A. Essay Competition 1957

With a view to encouraging original and significant contributions to the study of public administration in all its aspects, especially in the Indian context, the Institute has announced an Annual Essay Competition. The essay adjudged best will carry a prize of Rs. 1,000. A second prize of Rs. 500 may be awarded for the second best contribution. The closing date for this year's essay competition is December 31. Among the subjects suggested as suitable for treatment are : (a) Present-day Administrative Practices; (b) Problems in Public Administration; (c) Comparative Studies in Public Administration; (d) Historical Aspects of Public Administration. The essay must be written in English and should be approximately 10,000 words in length. It must be typed on one side of the paper only and submitted under a *nom de plume*. The full name and address of the competitor should be given on a separate sheet of paper and enclosed in a sealed envelope bearing the *nom de plume* on the outside. In judging the essay, the Judges will consider both its substance and suitability for publication. The awards will be given at the fourth Annual Meeting of the Institute to be held in April 1958.

II. Seminar on 'Recruitment and Training for Public Services'

A Seminar on 'Recruitment and Training for Public Services' was inaugurated at the Institute's premises on March 3 by Shri V.T. Krishnamachari, Chairman of the Executive Council of the Institute. About 50 delegates from the Union and State Governments, Public Service Commissions, and the Universities, participated. The papers discussed at the Seminar will be found at pp. 152-163 of this issue. A fuller report giving a summary of the discussion is under preparation. This will form the basis of further discussion of the same subject at the Annual Conference of members of the Institute proposed to be held on the 6th and 7th April 1957 in conjunction with the Annual General Meeting.

III. Refresher-Seminar on "Principles and Problems of Personnel Administration in India"

In association with the O & M Division of the Cabinet Secretariat of the Government of India, a refresher-seminar on "Principles and Problems of Personnel Administration in India" has been organised by the Institute. The course, which began on March 19, is being attended by 32 officers of the Government of India of the rank of Under Secretaries who are actually engaged in establishment work. It will consist of 12 two-hour sessions, twice a week. It will be followed by similar refresher-seminars in the subject for other groups of officers.

IV. Lectures

Prof. W.F. Ogburn, Distinguished Service Professor (Emeritus) of Sociology, Chicago University, gave a talk on "Planning and Social Trends" on the 22nd March.

Prof. Edward S. Mason, Professor of Economics and Dean of the Graduate School of Public Administration, Harvard University, addressed a high-level selected gathering of 15 persons on 'Problems of Economic Planning' on March 26 at the Institute's premises.

V. Library and Information Service

Shri J. M. Kanitkar, Librarian and Reference Officer, has returned from his five month's study tour of the United States under the India Wheat Loan Educational Exchange Programme. Shri Kanitkar stayed for 3 weeks at the Joint Reference Library, Public Administration Service, Chicago, and visited several important public administration libraries and institutions.

An "Abstracting Service" will be set up shortly to make available to members digests of important articles published in India and foreign periodicals.

that flair for administration which must be inborn. Though this flair cannot be artificially acquired, it is possible to stimulate it by means of a "personal handling" of the young administrator.

In British days it was usual for the newly joined civilian to go and live with the Collector for a few days at the beginning of his service, to work with the senior Service Officer in camp during the touring season, and take part in the revenue settlement operations under the guidance of a senior settlement officer; the youngster thus learnt the art of administration by seeing how it was actually practised. These personal contacts also made it possible, provided the basic material was there, to learn and develop administrative leadership. It is only such trained leaders who can set the tone of and improve administration wherever they are working, whether in the District in charge of field developmental work, in a Secretariat Department, in a private expanding business organisation, or in a new "public sector" undertaking.

—Y.N. Sukthankar

DELEGATION IN LOCAL GOVERNMENT; By PETER G. RICHARDS. London, Allen & Unwin Ltd., 1956. 184p. 20s.

This is a study of the technique of delegation in local self-government in England with special reference to delegation by County Councils to District Councils.

The general pattern of local government in England is the two-tier pattern in which the County Council performs certain major functions, such as education, planning and fire prevention, while the District Councils are responsible for a smaller number of minor functions, including housing and rent collection. Delegation in local government was first introduced in 1888 when the Local Government Act of that year allowed County Councils to delegate their power either to their own committees (internal delegation) or to District Councils. The 1894 Act gave counties a general power to use District Councils as their agents. In the 19th century, political opinion was generally against the growth of a national bureaucracy and of all powerful central departments, and an attempt was made to devolve on the Counties the Central Government's powers to control local authorities. But this move received a set-back owing to objections by District Councils.

In recent years, the British Parliament has been responsive to the demand to make the local government local, although it now insists on a greater degree of departmental control. Three recent Acts of Parliament—the Education Act of 1944, the Town & Country Planning Act of 1947 and the Civil Defence Act of 1948—have enabled County Councils to delegate certain functions to District Councils and in these Acts Mr. Richards reads a tendency to concentrate local administration in the hands of County Councils at the expense of District Councils. It is argued that the smaller authorities could not perform these duties in a satisfactory manner and therefore powers have been given initially to the counties and delegation has been used as a device for giving some compensation to districts for their reduced share of local government services, being thus a

compromise between the competing claims of County and District Councils to control local government.

A central authority has at its command a larger store of expertise, and, in the provision of services of a technical nature, is in a position to bring about both efficiency and economy which are the two prime objectives of any sound method of administration, and yet in matters of local government which concern a citizen in his daily life a certain measure of local democratic control is desirable. These desiderata are sought to be achieved by making the larger county council initially responsible for the provision of certain services with permission to delegate some functions to the District Councils or other *ad hoc* bodies on which District Councils are represented.

In the initial chapters the author makes a rapid survey of the present position of distribution of powers between various local authorities in England and the historical background. The legal implications of delegation, with reference to English Case Law, are examined and an attempt made to draw a distinction between delegation and agency. A 'delegate' has a measure of discretion and the delegating authority surrenders a measure of responsibility, the extent of both being determined by agreement between the parties. An 'agent', on the other hand, can only carry out the instructions of his principal; and the principal by employing an agent suffers no loss of control. The author confesses that it is difficult to define precisely the legal implications of the word 'delegation' and says that delegation, as at present practised, is no longer an administrative convenience but a compromise in terms of institutions aimed to reconcile conflicting pressure and desiderata.

The actual working of the delegation provisions in the three Acts is then examined in detail under the three heads of highways, education and civil defence. Technical and financial considerations in the case of highways are overwhelmingly in favour of centralisation, which permits use of improved engineering methods of equipment, makes possible placing of large orders for purchase of material at low prices and enables the larger body to employ specialists for different branches of highway construction, such as bridges, tunnels and hill roads. In the case of education, local sentiments have to be taken into account and the contradictory requirements of local interests and an integrated system of education are reconciled by delegating powers to divisional executives as well as excepted districts, such as non-county boroughs. Except for what the author describes as "minor friction which seems inseparable from the bureaucratic machine," these arrangements appear to work satisfactorily. Recent opinion is in favour of development plans covering wide areas, and the Town and Country Planning Act of 1947 transferred planning powers from District Councils to County Councils with permissive provisions for delegation.

The last chapter contains an excellent appraisal of the process of delegation from the point of view of administrative convenience and economy. Quoting from the second Report of the Local Man Power Committee the writer enumerates nine principles which should govern delegation in local government. These principles emphasise that certain services known as the welfare services cannot be administered successfully without

the local knowledge of individual circumstances and they are best administered on a local basis. The authority to which power is delegated must possess sufficient financial resources and adequate and competent staff. Expenditure must be made on estimates, which must not exceed without the prior consent of the County Council and once these estimates are approved no further expenditure sanction should be necessary. Delegation certainly increases costs, as it adds to the number of committees, paper work, travelling time and volume of negotiations. To the question whether delegation is worthwhile, the author replies that delegation combines local opinion and local knowledge with the resources which only a large area can provide, and the degree of success achieved by delegation arrangements is not a matter for precise evaluation.

In the ultimate analysis, the success of any administrative system depends upon the character of the personal relationships between the officials and non-officials who work within the system, and adequate importance has been given to the question of personal factor.

In the Indian system of local government, external delegation has not been resorted to on any considerable scale. District Boards, Municipal Boards, Notified Area Committees and Town Area Committees have generally been unrelated bodies enjoying independent jurisdiction within their own areas. The control is exercised by the government through the District Officer who also resolves conflicts arising between these bodies. It seems, however, necessary to devise a democratic pattern in which Panchayats, which will be the smallest units of local government, and Town Areas, and Notified Area Committees, Municipal Committees and District Boards will properly be fitted in. Mr. Richards' book which draws on extensive experience can be of much assistance in the planning of such a pattern. It should prove beneficial not only to students of local government administration but also to the practical administrator as well as members of Corporations, District Boards and Municipal Committees.

—A. D. Pandit

REPORTS ON THE INDIAN GENERAL ELECTIONS 1951-52;

Ed. by S.V. KOGEKAR & RICHARD L. CLARK. Bombay, Popular Book Depot. 1956. xvii, 322p. Rs. 12/8.

The publication of this study of the first Indian general elections provides a timely contribution to an understanding of the elections of 1957. This volume was published under the auspices of the Indian Political Science Association and edited by S.V. Kogekar of Fergusson College, Poona, and Richard L. Clark of the University of California. The preparation of the study for publication was assisted by a small grant from the Institute of Pacific Relations in the United States.

The first general elections offered a unique opportunity to observe the working of the electoral process and the interplay of the political forces which were involved. The authors and editors have attempted to report analyse, interpret and evaluate some of the facts, processes, aspirations, and results involved in this initial demonstration of mass suffrage.

A committee of political scientists was organised to direct and co-ordinate the study, and certain persons were requested to observe and report on the elections in their respective states. Inevitably, the project suffered from major handicaps, including a limited period of time at the disposal of the reporters and lack of funds for essential secretarial and research assistance and travelling expenses. The state reporters carried out their assignments either with inadequate funds or none at all, undertaking the work as a spare time occupation. The central committee in charge of the study was not able to meet as a whole, or to maintain a central office. Under these circumstances, the final summary emerges as a much more comprehensive and impressive work than would have been anticipated. A large quantity of material was gathered together and, for the most part, meaningfully organised.

The main value of the study is the focussing of attention on certain significant factors in the Indian political situation. There is considerable material which was not covered in the two-volume official report of the Election Commission. In fact, there is material in this volume which has not been printed in any other publication. For most of the State reports the subject-matter includes the political activities and attitudes of the various parties, the steps taken to seek popular backing, the political alliances formed, and the propaganda devices employed.

Such laboriously collected data, as well as the interpretation of the data, is assuredly deserving of publication, not only for Indian readers but for social scientists and students of politics in foreign countries. The scholars of many other countries have shown a keen interest in the first Indian general elections, the largest yet held in the free world. There has been a dearth of realistic research data on political phenomena in India, and the publication of this report is a genuine contribution to the study of politics.

The volume includes three main categories of material. In the first place there are the edited versions of the unpublished state reports, abridged for reasons of space and re-arranged in order to maintain a certain uniformity of framework. Second, there are brief edited extracts from the published state reports, with particular emphasis on the most distinctive local features of the election process. Finally, there are brief informative notes on the elections in those states for which no reports were received. Such notes were compiled by the editors from contemporary data available to them.

The coverage shows considerable variation from state to state, and few states were left uncovered on account of the inability of the reporters to fulfil their commitments. The volume lacks uniformity in style, for obvious reasons. Some of the State reports, on the other hand, are written with deliberation and care and based upon well-organised research. The editors are to be commended for the way in which they have handled the immense task of processing the material and summarising the abundant research data. Although brought together under difficult circumstances, the study is a worthwhile contribution to the understanding of the Indian political scene. The volume is of particular value in providing understanding and interpretation of political factors which were present in the 1957 election as well as in the earlier one.

—*Marguerite J. Fisher*

CIVIL SERVICE OR BUREAUCRACY?; By E.N. GLADDEN,
London, Staples Press Limited, 1956, xiii 224p. 21s.

Mr. Gladden's new book on the British Civil Service is concerned with the problem of adjusting the existing Civil Service to the needs of the contemporary Administrative State. But to discuss the problem he has to describe in detail the system as it exists against its historical background. This he does in Part I of the book, which he calls 'Inquest'. This is a very useful and up-to-date account of the Service, giving as it does the latest information on developments like training and the new salary scales. A number of tables and diagrams add to the value of the book in this respect.

The problem, or the 'Discussion' as he calls the second part, is put by him in this form. The Welfare State in England cannot function without a large administrative sector. Shall this be a responsible Civil Service, or an irresponsible bureaucracy? Recently the quality of entrants into the Civil Service has fallen, and though standards have been lowered and the competitive examination waived for certain posts, still the Service has not been sufficiently attractive for new entrants, even with the revised salary scales recommended by the Priestly Commission. And while recruits are thus becoming poorer in quality, the isolation of the Administrative Class (about 1,500, out of 400,000 non-industrial Civil Servants), continues.

Mr. Gladden is particularly critical of assimilating the official and non-official sectors of the community, for example, in respect of salary scales. But it is not clear how far the attitude is consistent with his other point of view that social assimilation is necessary between the two. Perhaps the explanation is to be found in terms of the degree of socialisation which exists in Britain; but the point does not appear to have been discussed in detail. And so, the book, like the author's earlier books, cannot but be said to be stronger on the descriptive side than on the critical or constructive one.

—V. K. N. Menon

SELECTED GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS

The following are some of the more important government publications recently added to the Institute's Library.

INDIA

FINANCE, MINISTRY OF.

[Budget papers for 1957-58 are listed below.]

Finance Minister's speech, 19th March, 1957. 6p.

Budget of the Central Government for 1957-58 (as laid before Parliament, 1957). 24p.

Explanatory memorandum on the budget of the Central Government for 1957-58 (as laid before the Parliament). iii, 459p.

Demands for grants for the expenditure of the Central Government (excluding railways), 1957-58. March 1957. 5v.

White Paper on budget, 1957-58. 31p.

Gives a brief account of economic conditions in the country during 1956 and describes the broad features of the revised estimates for 1956-57 and the budget estimates for 1957-58.

An Economic classification of the Central Government budget for 1957-58. March 1957. ii, 29p.

HOME AFFAIRS, MINISTRY OF.

The Central Civil Services (Classification, control and appeal) rules, 1957. (Gazette of India Extra-

ordinary, Pt. II—Sec. 3. No. 110, Feb. 28, 1957, p. 721-1035.)

LOK SABHA. Estimates Committee.

Fortieth report (1956-57) on Ministry of Community Development (Community Projects Administration). Part II. Dec. 1956. v, 97p.

Deals with certain specific subjects of all-India importance in connection with the community development programme—recruitment and training, conferences seminars and study tours, people's participation, administrative co-ordination, planning and research. Part I was published as 38th report of the Estimates Committee in Dec. 1956.

LOK SABHA. Estimates Committee.

Forty-fourth report (1956-57). Action taken by Government on the recommendations contained in the Fourth report [1950-51, on the Ministry of Works, Mines and Power] of the Estimates Committee. Dec. 1956. 118p.

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